The Nation.

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The Week.

THE defeat of the bill to repeal the ten per cent. tax on State bank-notes was the most conservative and wholesome vote taken in Congress since the repeal of the Sherman act. If it be true that Mr. Cleveland personally counselled members to vote against the repeal, on the ground that public opinion is not yet ripe for any radical change in our banking system, that is another of his titles to public confidence. The truth is that people are generally dissatisfied, as they ought to be, with the antiquated and hide-bound system of bank-note issues now existing. This system was designed for an entirely different state of things from that which now exists, and it did not even accomplish what it was designed for—the replenishment of the public treasury. It did accomplish a vast deal of good in a collateral way. It expelled chaos from our banking concerns, and that was a mighty gain. To open the door for the return of chaos simply because the system needs amendment, would be an enormous mistake. It would be like a respectable man going barefoot because one of his shoes pinched. What is wanted now is a scientific study of the whole question by a competent committee, who shall take evidence from all who are competent to give it, and sift it for general use. There is no objection to taking the evidence of Populists as well as of bankers on these terms and conditions. What everybody is striving for is the truth. We acknowledge that very few, if any, people who are busying themselves with this question have in view anything but the public good. We acknowledge, too, that many of those who differ from us more or less in this matter have brought important contributions to the solution of the controversy, and in this respect we especially commend the speeches of Mr. Warner of New York, Mr. Rayner of Maryland, and Mr. Harter of Ohio. Mr. Warner has brought together a large collection of facts, important to the issue in hand, which have not been previously compiled. His collection of the extemporized currency of clearing-houses and factories during the panic of last year is especially important, and these are all the better for being presented in facsimile.

Whatever danger there may be of this country's falling into the silver slough again is now distinctly traceable to the party that piques itself on being the party of sound money. Five Republican State conventions have lately been held, and they have vied with each other in the absurdity and peril of their financial planks. Maine and Ohio and Indiana go in furiously for the protection-free-silver combine, and Pennsylvania is for inflation any way to get it. The Kansas plank is a curiosity. It declares that "the interests of the producers of the country, its farmers and its workingmen, demand that the mints be opened to the coinage of silver, and that Congress should enact a law levying a tax on importations of foreign silver sufficient to fully protect the products of our own mines." This evidently means free coinage of silver without daring to say so explicitly. Characteristically enough, Senator Sherman comes out with a "hearty endorsement" of the Ohio platform, as "in line with the views I have always held on this question." Precisely so—views interchangeable with votes.

Senator Sherman prophesies smooth things about "an international agreement on this important subject," but no one knows better than he that such an agreement is farther off than ever. The wind-up of the latest German silver commission, given to the agrarians by Caprivi as a plaything to amuse themselves with for a while, shows how dim and far-off an event international bimetallism is. The greatest public service rendered by the commission, said the imperial secretary of the treasury in closing its sessions, would be in spreading the conviction that "serious difficulties attended the solution of the silver question." We did not need one risen from the dead, not even a resurrected silver commission, to tell us that. "The Government," added the sage secretary, "would examine all the proposals submitted to it, and would make those it regarded as feasible a basis for further consideration." Go on, gentlemen, getting up your little demonstrations of how to square the circle and invent perpetual motion, and when you succeed just let us know. Meanwhile, a great chance is offered the English bimetallists to show the stuff they are made of, by the *Investor's Review*, which undertakes to publish "the names of all holders of United States gold or sterling railroad bonds who are prepared to accept payment of their coupons in silver, just to encourage the rest."

Ex-Speaker Reed's recent deliverance on the silver question has proved a great surprise to the country. While the Republican leader in Congress has never been credited with thorough study of financial questions, he has made an excellent reputation. As Speaker in 1890 he successfully used his power to prevent the passage of a free-coinage bill in the House, and as the controller of the minority in the present House he resisted and defeated the disposition of such men as Burrows to have the Republicans keep silent and let the Democratic majority pass bad and positively dangerous measures. Most people, therefore, have set down Mr. Reed as sound on financial issues, and nobody supposed that he would "play second fiddle" to Henry Cabot Lodge by endorsing the latter's absurd plea for bringing England to terms on the silver question by bulldozing her on the tariff. The Republican editors have been so puzzled by his recent outgivings that many of them have kept entire silence, or contented themselves with saying that there must be some mistake in the report, as it was inconceivable that he should have uttered such nonsense. Some party journals, which are constrained to accept its authenticity, denounce the ex-Speaker's course in the roundest terms.

On the other hand, there are signs that Mr. Reed's scheme, or some similar piece of demagogy, may find a good deal of support among the politicians who run Republican conventions and make the party platforms. It is to the influence of the ex-Speaker's friends in the Ohio Republican State convention on June 6 that the "wobbling" outgiving on the silver question is ascribed. The McKinley men, who managed the convention and who want to keep the tariff issue to the front in the interest of their favorite for 1896, would not accept the full-fledged scheme for a tariff-silver "combine" which Reed advocates, but they had to yield so far as to adopt a resolution for "such a policy as will, *by discriminating legislation* or otherwise, most speedily restore silver to its rightful place as a money metal." As Congressman Burrows and the Detroit *Tribune*, which are influential in their State, endorse the Reed policy, it is expected that the Michigan Republicans will go at least as far as their brethren in Ohio. The growing demoralization of the party on financial issues is illustrated by the platforms of congressional as well as State conventions. Representative Grosvenor is perhaps the most prominent man in the Ohio delegation, and seems likely to succeed McKinley in the governorship. The first plank in the platform adopted when he was renominated the other day "demands the adoption of such legislation by Congress as will guarantee bimetallism and enlargement of the currency to at least forty dollars per capita." Grosvenor takes this plank from Quay, who had the Pennsylvania Republicans adopt it.

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Quay got it from the Populist national platform of 1892, the only difference being that this called for $50, while he asks for only $40.

Maine and Minnesota are both in the northern tier of States, and both come into competition with Canada. But there is a marked difference in their attitude on the general issue of the tariff and the special question of Canadian competition. The Republican State Convention of Maine on June 6 condemned the Wilson tariff bill and the "vicious features" added to it in the bill now before the Senate, which "delivers nearly every industry of Maine into the hands of our nearest and most hostile rival, the Dominion of Canada." Governor Cleaves, who was renominated, in his speech of acceptance spoke particularly of free lumber, and asked how the men employed in Maine forests, on her rivers, and in her mills, cutting and preparing that product for market, can expect to find employment at good wages "when we invite a foreign province to furnish that product to us with their labor, and thereby paralyze our own lumbering interests." On the other hand, the Republican Governor of Minnesota, Knute Nelson, who will shortly be renominated, is a man who in the Fiftieth Congress voted for the Mills bill, and in his speech announcing his position declared his belief in free lumber and cheaper shelter—"cheaper because released from the heavy and unnecessary bondage of high-tariff taxes." The St. Paul *Pioneer Press* a few days ago declared that lumber ought to be free, in the interest of "cheap building material for all the vast prairie region of the West and Northwest," and ridiculed the idea that Canadian competition in wages could give us much trouble. Evidently the Republican stump speaker of Maine will not do for the longitude of Minnesota.

It is not surprising to learn that the rural delegates to the New York Constitutional Convention are objecting to the proposed separation of municipal from State and national elections. They claim that separate elections will not work well in the country districts in years in which only town officers are to be chosen, since the stimulus of State or national issues is necessary to "bring out the vote." That is to say, the cities must continue to be a sacrifice to politics in order that the rural vote may be got out. The cities have for years been made in the Legislature a sacrifice to the wishes and interests of the politicians from the country districts. These have legislated, not in accordance with the wishes of the inhabitants of the cities, but in accordance with what they thought would help party interests outside the cities. The cities have, in fact, been governed for years from Albany by legislators responsible only to constituencies who had no interest whatever in city affairs. The consequence has been that no matter how damaging may have been the results of such legislation, the legislators were safely removed from being called to account for it. To say that the cities must go on indefinitely in this way, is to say that "getting out the vote" in the rural districts is the all-important end of government, to accomplish which no sacrifice is too great. If that argument is to prevail in the Constitutional Convention, there can be no separate election amendment and no municipal home-rule amendment hoped for.

The fuss made in the newspapers about Croker's doings and goings would be inordinate but for the part he has played in city affairs since Tammany came into power, and the amount of knowledge of Tammany administration he possesses. But his knowledge is so great that we have marvelled much that the committee did not serve a subpœna on him before now. It seems to us that he is about the first witness they should have taken pains to secure. Nearly the whole Tammany income must have passed through his hands, and he must have been very familiar with its sources. The blackmail paid him, too, to secure immunity from hostile legislation, ought surely to have come within the purview of the investigation as explaining and illustrating the nature of the Tammany system. We say all this on the supposition, which we take to be well founded, that the committee can summon and examine any one they please who is presumed to be able to give information bearing on the matter in hand. His hasty departure for Europe, therefore, at the very opening of the racing season, does not surprise us. The wonder is that he did not go sooner. His object in being out of the country now, even if he should come back before the investigation is over, is doubtless to see what comes out before he submits himself to examination. This was undoubtedly his game when the Fassett committee was sitting. He came back when he knew what he should have to explain or deny. The exposures before the present committee may be such that his stay in Europe may be indefinitely prolonged, or they may be such that he can meet them by simple denial and forgetfulness. But the time of his departure—just as his horses are beginning to run—shows that he considers the situation serious.

The testimony thus far adduced in the police inquiry has agreed in fixing pretty definitely the rates of Tammany tariff on some forms of vice and other sources of revenue. Thus, the regular rate for a disorderly house is $500 "initiation fee" to the police captain, to be paid whenever a new captain is placed in charge of the district; $50 a month for the captain, usually collected through the ward detective, and something for the ward detective himself, the amount of which depends upon his personal ability as an extortionist. In addition to this tariff there is a contribution to the "Christmas present" of the captain, and sometimes something to the patrolman on the beat. Concert saloons, without licenses, pay $50 a month to the captain. The regular tariff for cafés with waitresses, selling liquor without licenses, runs from $15 to $25 a month. The regular pay to ward men from a liquor-saloon for the privilege of selling on Sunday is $5 a month. The regular pay to the inspector of the Excise Department, from saloons that have no licenses, is $5, as salve to his conscience for "overlooking" the fact. This is in addition to the $5 to the ward man for Sunday selling. The regular tariff for admission to the police force is $300. Tickets to Tammany "chowder parties," usually distributed among disorderly houses and liquor-saloons in batches of five, are $5 each, and it is "bad form" for any to be sent back.

We trust that the *Tribune* will give us some light about its custom of making a Christmas present of a basket of wine to Police Commissioner McClave. Was it sent regularly, and if so what was the motive? Had the sending of it anything to do with the election advertising, which is worth $20,000 a year to each newspaper securing it, which is bestowed by vote of the police commissioners, and which usually goes to the *Tribune*? It will be remembered that the late Elliott F. Shepard tried to get it on one occasion, and that he assured an advertising agent that, under proper pressure, it could be obtained for his religious newspaper, since the commissioners "are weak and will yield easily." The advertising agent, in the excess of his zeal, supposed the colonel to mean that he should offer the commissioners a rebate of $5,000. The *Tribune's* plan of a basket of wine—quality unknown—was much more economical than this, and seems to have been quite regularly successful. What was the quality of the wine? Was it the famous brand of American champagne which another Republican editor, late head of the Census Bureau, was wont to boom so industriously? Or was it Reich's famous *Nullum Vinum nisi Hungaricum*? We trust not, for the sake of McClave's stomach. The *Tribune* ought to explain this freely, for it is only a few days since it remarked of McClave that "unfortunately he does not enjoy a reputation in this community which entitles him to protest against a searching inquisition." Is the Hon. Whitelaw Reid in the habit of sending Christmas presents of wine to persons of doubtful reputation? We earnestly

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trust that this community may be spared the shock of such a revelation.

The failure of the courts in Monroe County, Pa., to punish anybody for the lynching of a negro a few weeks ago is an ominous sign. The judge seems to have been in earnest, but the grand jury were in evident sympathy with the law-breakers and reported that they could find no one who was responsible. The explanation is found in the statement of a local newspaper, while proceedings in court were pending, that "there is apparently no fear on the part of the lynchers, and no one cares to see them punished." It is even suspected that there were lynchers or witnesses of the lynching on the grand jury itself. Worse still, this is not an isolated case of the condoning of such crimes at the North. Two negroes have been lynched by white mobs in Ohio within a year, but nobody has been punished or will be punished for the offence. New York, Michigan and Kansas are other Northern States in which lynch law has been invoked by whites against blacks in recent times, and the law of the land has proved helpless against the criminals. In all of these cases the difficulty has been the same—that public sentiment did not demand the punishment of the lynchers.

The full influence of last summer's panic on the immigration movement was not felt at once. The arrivals during the last six months of 1893 fell only a trifle short of the same period in 1892; and, although this comparison is somewhat impaired by the cholera scare of 1892, and the consequent check to immigration, the general results up to last year's close were not particularly striking. But, beginning with 1894, a very remarkable change in the volume of immigration developed. During the first three months of the year the immigrant arrivals decreased from 98,799 in 1892 and 71,640 in 1893 to only 38,278 in 1894. In April less than half as many immigrants arrived as in April, 1893, showing a still heavier rate of decrease. This decrease has been most heavy in the countries whence our most desirable immigrants are drawn. The movement from Russia during the year's four opening months was actually larger than last year's; Italy's immigration fell off barely one-half. But the movement from Great Britain and Ireland decreased from 33,624 in 1893 to 13,668 this year; the German immigration from 27,064 to 12,157; while that from Sweden and Norway fell from 15,932 to 5,218, a decrease of more than 66 per cent.

The disastrous smash of the New Zealand Mercantile Company, which finally drove Mr. Mundella out of the English cabinet, laid bare, at the judicial examination of the directors, an astonishing state of things. The board was made up, in good part at least, of honorable men of high standing, like Mr. Mundella himself, yet it had been, collectively, doing the most dishonorable things for years. It had borrowed on false pretences, issued new stock without notice to stockholders, and published misleading balance-sheets. All sorts of excuses were put forward by the men at whose doors these things were laid, all of whom protested that they were ignorant of the rascality and animated only by the most high-minded motives. Yet they could not deny their moral or legal responsibility for what had occurred. It was their business to direct, and if they did not or could not, they should have resigned from the board and not allowed their names to stand as a lure for the unwary. What the London *Times* said on the subject is of universal application:

"It is idle cant to pretend anxiety for the better distribution of wealth until we can devise means by which this preying upon people of small incomes can be put a stop to. It is idle to prate of thrift when the small investor has no guarantee whatever for the most ordinary honesty and sagacity in the conduct of his affairs. If we are to admit the mass of the nation to a share in the lucrative business now carried on by men of capital—and there is no other way to equalize wealth without sapping the foundations of industry—we must find some cure for this collective recklessness or dishonesty which is the curse of joint-stock enterprise."

The impossibility of imagining Mr. Gladstone in Lord Rosebery's place on Wednesday of last week is the best measure of the essential difference between the two men, and of their comparative fitness to lead the reforming party in English politics. Mr. Gladstone has had many popular ovations, but he never went out in the face of a Derby throng, to lead back his winning horse and be madly cheered by thousands of men in whom the coarser passions were running riot. The protests of the Nonconformists against a "horse-racing Premier" are already beginning to be heard, and more of them will be heard in the future. There is a Puritan strain in the great body of the Dissenters who have gone into the struggle for Welsh disestablishment and justice to Ireland, which may be narrow and prejudiced, but which is a factor not to be neglected. By Mr. Gladstone's leadership and by his austere public utterances and private life, these men were braced and nerved; but they will not long follow a man so much at ease in Zion as Lord Rosebery. He has already lost a good part of the moral enthusiasm which has so clearly marked and dignified the home-rule cause, and his rather defiant speech at Eton in defence of horse-racing will not win him back the support which he has alienated. If he maintains himself long in power, it will be by means of new political combinations and issues, and not by the backing of the chapel-going middle classes.

It needs but a single glance at the map of Central Africa to see that the Anglo-Belgian agreement signed at Brussels on May 12 is a direct blow to France. It is no secret that of late years the ambition of the directors of the French colonial policy has been to extend their Congo possessions to the Nile, and thus to acquire the rich province of the Bahr el-Ghazal, formerly governed by Lupton Bey. Up to this time, however, they have limited their action in this direction to repeated energetic protests against the extension of the Congo Free State north of the 4th degree of latitude, their exploring and treaty-making expeditions having been confined to the country between the Congo and the Niger valley. By the new treaty Great Britain leases to the Congo Free State all the territory lying between the watershed of the Congo and Nile basins and the Nile as far west as the twenty-fifth meridian, and to the tenth parallel in the north. This includes the province of the Bahr el-Ghazal and that part of the equatorial province of Emin Pasha which is to the west of the Nile. The greater portion of this latter province reverts to Great Britain on the death of King Leopold, but the lease of all that lies west of the thirtieth meridian, together with a strip of land twenty-five kilometres in breadth connecting this territory with the northern shore of Lake Albert, is "continued so long as the Congo territories, as an independent state or as a Belgian colony, remain under the sovereignty of his Majesty and his Majesty's successors." In return for this important concession the Free State leases to Great Britain its most northerly station on Lake Tanganyika and a strip of country twenty-five kilometres in breadth, connecting it with Lake Albert Edward, thus affording England direct communication between the Nile and her South African possessions.

This latest act in the partition of Africa is not a mere paper agreement, but rather a ratification of accomplished facts. An armed force of the Free State has already for some time been established at Lado on the Nile, the former seat of government of the equatorial province, while the English last winter took temporary possession of Wadelai, Emin's latest residence, thus reasserting, as the protector of Egypt, the claims of that country to the upper valley of the Nile. It is hard to predict with any confidence what will be the results of this action of the two powers. Certain provisions in the agreement would seem to indicate the prompt occupation by King Leopold of the ceded territory. But the French minister of foreign affairs says the lease is null and void, and that he is sending troops to resist its execution. This makes the situation look serious.

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THE SUGAR SCHEDULE.

WHEN the Republican party bankrupted the Treasury with its pension largesses and turned the government over to the Democrats with a deficit of $75,000,000 the following year, the necessity was imposed on the Cleveland administration of finding revenue sufficient to close the gap. The most obvious way was to restore some portion of the sugar duties, which had been repealed in the vain hope of reconciling the country to the McKinley tariff. The House, however, decided that sugar should remain free, and that the bounty should be repealed. We think that this was a mistake, and that the Senate was entirely justified in reclaiming a portion of the revenue from sugar; and although we detest bounties, as containing the germ of all the socialism and Coxeyism now rampant, we should not have grudged some gratuity to the planters of cane and beet for a limited number of years, either by tariff or by bounty. The plain and honest course for the Senate was either to pass the bill as it came from the House, or to impose a revenue duty on raw sugar, which would have protected the planters in an incidental way.

The Senate did the latter, but it did not stop there. It proceeded to construct a monstrous scheme of bounty and protection to the one industry in the United States which stands least in need of government bounty and tariff coddling. It would have been quite as appropriate and edifying, and quite as good policy, to have enacted that the Standard Oil Trust (or Company, if that name is preferred) should receive thirty million dollars out of the public treasury during the next six months as a reward of merit, and one-eighth of a cent per gallon for all the oil they might sell in this country thereafter, as to do what is done for the Sugar Trust (or Company) in the Senate bill. The Sugar people have the same grip on the country that the Standard Oil people have had these many years. They control such a vast quantity of freight that they can dictate their own terms to the railroads. They control such an enormous amount of capital that they can dictate the price of raw sugar to the planters of the West Indies and of the East Indies.

These things we do not complain of, because they are not governmental contrivances. We allude to them only to show that anything like a bounty or protection to this monopoly is not only unnecessary and uncalled for, but reprehensible in the last degree. It is true that the Republicans gave to this monopoly raw sugar free of duty, and a protection of half a cent per pound plus a countervailing duty against the German export bounty. This was an enormous gratuity, but it was in keeping with the Republican idea of protection, which has been gradually enlarging its scope for thirty years. Originally, it meant protection only where it was clearly needed. Now it means protection to anybody who asks for it (except the quinine manufacturers). Formerly it meant protection sufficient to insure fair competition. Now it means prohibition, for no argument is more common, or has greater force, than the statistical tables showing that some small amount of an article (pig iron, for example) is still imported at Galveston, or Seattle, or some other place far distant from our furnaces. In every such case the Home Market Club is ready to burst with indignation if the duty is lowered by the smallest fraction. Its members really think that they have been attacked by highwaymen and robbed of their pocketbooks.

The Democratic party professes to be opposed to this conception of the duties of government. It holds that the function of government is simply to collect and disburse its revenues in an economical and just manner, and especially not to pamper greedy and overgrown monopolies. How have its principles been carried out in the sugar schedule? In a way to disrupt the party inevitably, and perhaps for all time. If the House consents to let the Sugar Trust collect the sugar duties for its own use by importing in anticipation of the tariff during six months or any other period, however small, the party is doomed. The Philadelphia *Ledger's* correspondent tells us that a prominent member of the Senate finance committee says:

> "We shall inform the [conference committee of the two houses] that it is not the bill many of us desire, but that it embraced the most radical reductions which could be obtained in our body with any chance of its passage. We shall give them the option of assisting to secure its enactment into law, or of defeating any measure of tariff reform, because no material modifications of the bill as amended by the Senate can pass that body. The conference committee will be given the alternative of the Senate bill or no bill; of a measure of reasonable reduction or a measure of no reduction; of a partial carrying out of the Democratic platform or a positive refusal to do anything to fulfil the promises of 1892. I have no doubt what the result will be."

Very well! If the Senate's idea of a "reasonable reduction" is a gratuity of this kind to the Sugar Trust, better that the whole bill were killed, and the Democratic party along with it, and that a party of free trade were founded on its ruins. Then the Sugar Trust can bestow its campaign contributions on one party exclusively, instead of alternating between the two. The *Tribune* of Sunday, under the heading "Sugar and the Bill of Sale," calls attention to the fact that Senator Quay voted in the interest of the Sugar Trust when that schedule was before the Senate, and that Senator Aldrich dodged the vote on one of the most important amendments. Probably the *Tribune* knows more than it cares to tell about the bill of sale. It was rumored at the close of the Presidential campaign of 1888 that the sugar people contributed $100,000 to Mr. Quay's committee, and that this contribution was made at the instance of Senator Aldrich. If this were true, it would account satisfactorily for a good many things, including the favorable position which the refining interest received in the McKinley tariff. It may be true, also, that the sugar people, being men of much sagacity and worldly wisdom, came to the conclusion, near the end of the campaign of 1892, that the Democratic party was the winning side that year, and hence pitched their dollars in that direction. Or it is just possible that they contributed to both parties in both campaigns, in order to be on the safe side. The only thing that can be counted on with certainty is, that on whichever side they placed their money, it was a pretty large sum—an amount corresponding in some degree to their tariff bonus, perhaps one or two per cent. of it.

If the sugar people can carry their measures through the House as they have carried them through the Senate, there is no reason why the bill of sale should not be repeated indefinitely. The whole proceeding is an apt illustration of the workings of the protective tariff, and it must not be supposed that the sugar people are the only ones who are "in it." They are in it a little deeper than others because the importations of sugar are so enormous. It is this which makes them more conspicuous than any other tariff beneficiaries. We can recall a time when the copper-producing interest drew all eyes to itself for the same reason, and there was a time as far back as 1857 when speculators in wool caused such a scandal in connection with the tariff that a special investigation of it was ordered by the House. It may be put down as an axiom in political economy that whenever a valuable thing, be it a commodity or a franchise, is exposed to competition, there will be bidders for it, and that it will bring something near its value. If this thing is the right to tax the public under the guise of a duty on sugar, starch, lead, cordage, copper, or what not, it will bring its price in the shape of campaign contributions, if not in more reprehensible disbursements, and the bill of sale is just as plain and business-like in the one case as in the other. It delivers a political party (or so much of it as may be necessary to insure the carrying out of the trade), as goods sold, packed, labelled, and paid for. Delivering the party means delivering the American people as a great goose to be plucked for at least four years. The next bill of sale may be made out by the opposite party, but the effect is the same.

THE CONNECTING LINK.

"PEOPLE should not forget," said Dr. Parkhurst a few days ago, "that the Police Department is only the maw of Tammany—that part of Tammany in

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which the whole system of blackmail and corruption is digested." That is the view we have always maintained, but of which it has been difficult to obtain positive proof. Mr. Goff succeeded on Thursday in getting proof in abundance from the mouth of a Tammany witness who was as well qualified as almost any member of the organization, except, perhaps, "Jimmy" Martin or "Paddy" Divver, to tell the whole story. Ex-Senator, now Judge, Roesch has been one of the most favored of Mr. Croker's young "counsellors" for many years. He was the favorite Tammany member of the Assembly for four years, and its favorite member of the Senate for a like period. Since 1891 he has been the Tammany leader of his district, and last November he was elected, as the Tammany candidate, civil justice in the Fourth District.

He confesses on the witness-stand that he has been in the habit of taking retainers from the keepers of disorderly houses to protect them and their inmates against the efforts of the police to enforce the laws; that he has given the keeper of at least one such house a slip of paper with his name written upon it to be used with the police whenever her house was "in trouble"; that though he took a fee of $100 as a retainer from one woman, he never drew a paper for her, or appeared in court for her, or performed a legal act for her. He admits that as the Tammany leader of his district he is president of a Tammany club, of which his brother is treasurer, and among whose members there are many liquor-dealers and at least one keeper of a disorderly house; that he has interfered constantly in the Police Department for the purpose of getting friends either put upon the force or promoted or transferred; that he has known of policemen being employed to go about among liquor-saloons selling tickets at five dollars each for the "chowder parties" of his Tammany club; that he has to distinguish constantly between his services as counsel and his services as Tammany leader, but that he never makes a mistake in confounding the two or in taking a retainer in the latter capacity; that he frequently appears as counsel before the Excise Board to obtain licenses for liquor-saloons, receiving fees as high as $150 for the service, and usually succeeding.

We do not believe there is a particle of doubt in the minds of the committee who heard this extraordinary confession, or in the mind of any reader of it in the newspaper reports, that Roesch has been using his position as a leader of Tammany Hall to levy tribute upon the liquor-saloons and criminal resorts of the district for the benefit of Tammany Hall. Whenever the pressure of the police upon "a madame" has become intolerable, she has retained Roesch as "counsel" to interfere in her behalf, and he has interfered. "Do you mean to tell the committee that you didn't take her [a madame's] money to protect her from the police who were troubling her?" asked Senator O'Connor. "Yes," replied Roesch; "I took a fee to look out for her whenever she or her girls were arrested or annoyed." That is a noble occupation for a counsellor, soon to be a civil justice, to be engaged in, yet it seems to have been a regular business with Roesch. Equally regular appear to have been his services to liquor-dealers, to men who wished to get upon the police force, or who desired favors of any kind. The flow of money into the Tammany treasury from all these and kindred sources seems to have been steady and large. There is no evidence to show that the system does not continue undiminished since Roesch became a civil justice; on the contrary, there is no reason to doubt that this addition to his functions of leader and counsellor has greatly increased his capacity as a Tammany collector for the district.

In speaking of the civil justices, in one of his special messages of 1888, Mayor Hewitt said: "The civil justices, with some honorable exceptions, seem to have regarded it their duty to protect the citizen against the complaints of the police." Roesch was engaged in this business before he went upon the bench, and it is reasonable to suppose that he has not discontinued the practice since. He is a fair sample of the Tammany members of the district-court bench, which has been used by Tammany in the same way the police-justice bench has been used, as a refuge and stronghold for the most disreputable of its district leaders. "Pete" Mitchell was for years a civil justice, and many a great Tammany rascal has, during some portion of his career, held a seat upon it. The evil of such possession is too obvious to be dwelt upon. Like the Tammany possession of the police-court bench, it poisons justice at the fountain-head, and makes the machinery of justice among the most helpless of the population a protection for crime and a source of revenue from crime.

It should be remembered of Roesch that, as chairman of the judiciary committee of the Senate, he sat in judgment upon the finding of the Bar Association against Judge Maynard, examined the eminent lawyers who framed that finding, and vindicated Maynard from their accusations. At the very time he was performing this service for Tammany and Hill, he seems to have been collecting revenue from disorderly houses as their "counsel" against the police. Here is a picture of the moral quality of the average Tammany statesman which we commend to the thoughtful consideration of all people who are afraid lest the condemnation of Tammany be too "sweeping and indiscriminate." What other Tammany magnate, from Croker down to "Mike" Daly, would fare any better were he to be put on the stand and his every-day proceedings brought to the light?

THE POOLING QUESTION.

THE Chamber of Commerce, in advocating the passage of a law permitting competing railways to divide their tonnage or earnings among themselves in some agreed proportion, is in line with public opinion at the East. The argument for pooling is quite simple. Fierce rivalry has reduced the rates actually charged to shippers to such low figures that, in connection with other causes, one-quarter of our railway mileage is now in the hands of receivers, and a large proportion of the remainder see insolvency staring them in the face. Not only is the capital invested in railways entitled to a return as a matter of economic right, but as a matter of economic law it must receive such profit if we are to have further industrial progress. The grave consequences to the United States which would ensue upon a universal failure of our transportation companies are clearly apparent to thinking men. The charges of our railways are on the average much lower than those of Europe, and cannot be raised extortionately even if the companies combined for that purpose, because our lake, river, and canal systems forbid it. Moreover, commercial conditions throughout the country are set to low freight rates, so that the carriers would lose their traffic if tariffs were much advanced. Fairness to the railways and prosperity to our industries demand that at least the carriers be allowed to collect their earnings according to their present published schedules without further secret reductions.

This, in brief, is the argument in favor of some form of railway pooling, and to those familiar with the business situation it appeals with great force. The Interstate Commission concedes the point, while Mr. Patterson of the House committee, in presenting its pooling bill, made an extended report which certainly put the necessity for some such measure in a strong light. Perhaps the most encouraging sign of all was the passage of a resolution, favoring railway pooling under safeguards, at the convention of State railroad commissioners held in Washington last month. This resolution was adopted by a vote of 15 to 8 after a strong paper by State Commissioner Dey of Iowa and a thoughtful address by Interstate-Commissioner Knapp, both in favor of the proposition.

Clearly enough, the claims of the railways to reasonable rates from their standpoint (the claims of the public to like reasonable tariffs being long ago admitted) are making headway throughout the Union. Yet, in spite of this growing feeling in favor of a repeal of the section

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of the act to regulate commerce which forbids pooling, there is some doubt whether Congress will soon enact such a law. Some of our States are not influenced by economic arguments. For years they have reasoned that the railways which carried the produce of their citizens were owned in the East or in Europe, and hence any falling off in profits did not concern them. Their object was attained if farmers and traders could get transportation still cheaper either by legislative compulsion or through rate-cutting. If the carrying company was forced into bankruptcy, it was no concern of the Granger commonwealth. The prevalence of this reasoning is shown even now by the vote in the convention just spoken of, where the commissioners from Georgia, Mississippi, Virginia, Illinois, Minnesota, and Montana voted against pooling in any form.

It is questionable whether Congressmen from these and similar States will be willing to grant pooling just yet. The secretary of transportation for Nebraska, in the last *Independent*, admits the feeling of hostility to railroads in his State, though he explains its origin and hopes for its modification. Until the people of these States are led to change their opinions, partly through argument, but largely through the lessons of experience, it would not be wise to count upon the easy enactment of a pooling law. When the service is reduced in those States by the efforts of the carrying companies to save expenses; when the farmer's son is discharged by the railway; when the reduction in the amount of money paid out monthly in wages is such as to cripple the sales and the income of the grocer; then, after the first outburst of indignation, we may look for a revival of the maxim that the community cannot be permanently prosperous if the railway is not. But it is doubtful whether we may expect such a revulsion in Granger and Southern opinion until the object-lesson has been thoroughly put before them and its meaning thoroughly learned. The Rock Island Railway, in its reports, prints a statement of the exact sums paid yearly in salaries and wages. From this table it may be seen that payments to employees form 55 per cent. of all that company's expenditures of every description. If we deduct items of expenses for cost of coal, taxes, car mileage, injuries to persons, and losses to property, and the like which involve no wage payments directly, the pay-rolls comprise 75 per cent. of the road's working cost. The real proportion of labor is greater, as in locomotive fuel for example, where the miner's wages constitute much the larger part of the cost; so with rails, ties, and all supplies used by the company—payments to labor are the principal items of the cost.

The large sum paid directly as wages, amounting to over $8,000,000 on the Rock Island, is spent by the employees in the territory through which the road runs. How much the community is dependent upon these pay-rolls for trade support will not be realized until the flow of money is of necessity checked or stopped. When this argument to the pocket-book is considered at the West and South sufficiently to allow of a change in public sentiment, we may expect that Congress will pass some sort of pooling bill. But whether this public opinion is now developed enough to approve of such an act, is an open question. In time something of the kind will get upon our statute books, as in Europe, where pooling is not forbidden, for it is right as a matter of equity and as a matter of prosperity also to all concerned in our great industry, railway transportation.

PRESIDENT ELIOT.

PRESIDENT ELIOT of Harvard completed a few days ago the twenty-fifth year of his administration of the college. The entire faculty united, on the anniversary, in a memorandum setting forth their keen appreciation of all that he had done and all that he had been, to the great institution on whose history he has made such an important impression. It is difficult for those who know Harvard only in its present condition to estimate the work he has done for it. One has to go back to 1869, when the college was looking about for a candidate to fill the vacancy left by President Hill's resignation, to get the full measure of his services. There were two traditions about the presidency which were still strong in Cambridge at that period: one was that the president of Harvard College should be either a clergyman or a man of a clerical turn of mind. The other was that he should be an elderly person. It was not without difficulty, and much searching of the heart, that these were both set aside in President Eliot's favor. Not only was he not a clergyman, but he was a man of the modern scientific school, and he was not yet forty years old.

He took his place, too, when the old régime in American colleges had clearly reached its last limits. The war was over, the wealth and the scientific and literary curiosity of the country, and especially of the youth of the country, had increased by leaps and bounds. It was becoming quite clear that a curriculum and methods of instruction designed in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, not only "to advance learning," but to guard the churches from an "illiterate ministry," was unfit for the latter half of the nineteenth; but who was to make the change? Who was to modernize and secularize the college—to convert it, in short, into a university? The instructors of established reputation were unequal to any such work. Was it possible to get it intrusted to a young and comparatively unknown man?

When Mr. Eliot took hold of it, he had nearly everything to change—the modes of instruction, the kind of instructors, the nature of the curriculum, besides greatly increasing the ground covered by his faculty; and to do all this he had to raise immense sums of money. He had to encounter, too, the bitter prejudices of a very conservative community, to whom the ancient ways were a sacred inheritance, and especially the prejudices of fathers who could not see that what was good enough for them was not good enough for their sons. And he was not a man of winning ways; he did not find it easy to put attractive drapery around his plans. In an unusual degree "his armor was his honest thought." Everything he conceived or proposed had to win on its merits, and to win under criticism of varying kinds and from different quarters, but win it did. In recalling the trials, struggles, and experiments of those early years, it is but just to a memory dear to Harvard, to say that he had in the late E. W. Gurney a much-trusted and most valuable counsellor, who might himself have done Mr. Eliot's work, had he been called to his place and had he possessed the splendid courage which has always been one of the president's most marked traits.

At all events, the work has been done. Harvard has been converted from a sort of high school devoted largely to preparing men for the ministry into a modern university in which almost everything teachable is taught, and in which the real student is allowed to pick and choose among the now so numerous sources of human knowledge. The proof of President Eliot's success is to be found in the fact that his example has been followed in other colleges—in some closely, in others at a greater distance. Yale, Columbia, and Princeton have all been reorganized in a greater or less degree on the lines he laid down at Harvard. The suggestion of the Johns Hopkins régime undoubtedly came, in part at least, from Harvard, and the great institution which is springing up in Chicago will owe its character and aims not a little to the success of the Cambridge experiment. In fact, no history of American university education will ever be written in which Mr. Eliot will not figure as its real founder, as the man to whom it owed its renaissance after two centuries of mediæval bondage.

That there have been faults and mistakes in this process, probably President Eliot himself would be the last to deny. In the work of university reform, as in other things, men must

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have the defects of their qualities. A man who more distinctly represented scholarship or thought than President Eliot, could never have thrown open the doors of the college both to scholarship and to thought so widely as he. The value of his work to both one and the other will probably be better known when he is gone than now. For nothing is more certain than that the man who was to convert American colleges into great seats of learning in the higher sense of the term, would have to be a man of action rather than of thought, to shine as an administrator more than as a scholar. We venture to predict that the day is not far distant when these great establishments will have two heads instead of one; when the man who manages its business and watches over its discipline will not have to represent to the world its tastes, its faculties, or its ideas, and the one who stands for its intellectual range and characteristics, will not have to think of its ways and means. This division of labor will undoubtedly be the next great collegiate change. As yet the president has to occupy himself only too much with the adjustment of the machinery to the altered conditions of American life, and with the management of the great wealth which American liberality is pouring into his lap.

WILLIAM DWIGHT WHITNEY.

THE last half-century has witnessed thoroughgoing revolutions in politics, in religion, and in science; and in no department of science is the revolution more thorough than in philology. First among the names of Americans who have helped to bring about this result is William Dwight Whitney. He is fallen on sleep. How has he served his generation?

His marvellous scientific productivity extended over a period of forty-five years; it began with an essay 'On the grammatical structure of the Sanskrit,' translated and abridged from Von Bohlen, and published in the *Bibliotheca Sacra* for 1849. He was then but a little over twenty-two years old. Long and rich in achievement as this period is, his death is nevertheless untimely and premature, for his splendid intellect was still unimpaired by age. He was born in a place that has produced a remarkable number of distinguished men, in Northampton, Mass., on the 9th of February, 1827, the son of Josiah Dwight and Sarah (Williston) Whitney. In 1842 he entered the sophomore class of Williams College, and was graduated there in 1845. Doubtless the woods and hills of that picturesque region gave an additional charm to the practical studies in natural history—especially ornithology—to which he devoted much of his time while in college, and which were a valuable resource and delight to him for many years afterward. Of the four years succeeding his graduation, more than three were spent in the Northampton Bank; and in the summer of 1849, he went to Lake Superior as an assistant in the United States Geological Survey, the botany and ornithology and the keeping of the accounts being intrusted to him. On his return in the autumn, he went to Yale College for a year, to continue under Prof. Salisbury the study of Sanskrit which he had begun the year before.

In the autumn of 1850 he sailed for Germany, where he studied chiefly under Prof. Weber of Berlin and Prof. Roth of Tübingen. And now without delay he made the real beginning of a brilliant scientific career by copying and collating the European manuscripts of the 'Atharva-Veda,' one of the most important and ancient of the sacred books of India, and of which he and Prof. Roth were to be joint editors. In the summer of 1853 he returned home, having already, while still in Germany, accepted a call to the chair of Sanskrit at Yale. Its duties he did not assume until 1854; but within little more than two years his name and reputation as a scholar were established by the issue of the *editio princeps* of the 'Atharva-Veda.' And he still lacked some months of thirty!

Meantime, however, it became necessary for him to eke out the wholly inadequate salary of his professorship by giving instruction in modern languages. This necessity, much as it may be regretted by the friends of his chosen science, was not without resultant public benefit in that it was the occasion of his preparing a series of text-books, especially for the study of German, on a plan which renders them preëminently well suited for maturer minds. Such time-consuming labor might well have proved an all too serious handicap for smaller men, but not so for Whitney. In quick succession came now some of his most important works. His annotated translation of the 'Sūrya-siddhānta' appeared in 1860; and this, with his other astronomical papers, forms the most notable contribution of the century to Occidental knowledge of Hindu astronomy. The Prātiçākhya of the 'Atharva-Veda,' which he edited, with translation and elaborate notes, in 1862, is a phonetico-grammatical treatise upon the text of that Veda, and is of fundamental significance for the establishment of that text. The like is true of the Tāittirīya-Prātiçākhya, which he issued in a similar manner in 1871. We know not which to wonder at the more—whether at the marvellous knowledge of details of these learned and labored Hindus, or at the masterly way in which their Occidental expositor has grasped what they knew and has recast and presented it in a form most lucid and facile. In 1881 a complete Index Verborum to the 'Atharva-Veda' was issued, and an annotated translation of this Veda is now in manuscript, nearly ready for the press.

In 1879 came his 'Sanskrit grammar,' published in English and in German at Leipzig, to which, in 1885, was added a voluminous supplement entitled 'Roots, verb-forms, and primary derivatives of the Sanskrit language.' Of his strictly technical works, these are the crowning achievements; and for them—considering, or even not considering, the status of Sanskrit philology—it would be extremely hard to find a parallel. They are based not on the dicta of predecessors, but upon actual observation of the facts of the language, which then are subjected to masterly classification and rigorously scientific induction. The author was one of the strict Indianists rather than one of the professed comparative grammarians; but these two works have the merit of often setting the problems for the comparative grammarians and of putting into their hands a good part of the materials for solution.

While steadily carrying on the extensive technical investigations just noticed, Whitney found time to write frequent and valuable minor essays. These treat of Hindu astronomy, of phonetics, of comparative grammar and mythology, of Oriental religions and literatures, and of the origin and nature of language. His Smithsonian and Lowell lectures, rewritten and expanded, were published in 1867 under the title 'Language and the study of language.' This volume covers the ground of general linguistic science, and also treats the most difficult questions of linguistic speculation. Taking it by and large, it is still the best general work of its kind. Similar topics, but in more compendious form, are treated in his 'Life and growth of language,' which appeared in 1875 and was soon translated into German, French, Italian, Netherlandish, and Swedish. Of the miscellaneous papers scattered through the *North American Review*, the *Nation*, and elsewhere, a dozen or more were put forth in 1873 as 'Oriental and linguistic studies,' and a second series of them in the year following. Some of them are of permanent interest and value; and one of them, on 'The Vedic doctrine of a future life,' deserves to be ranked as a veritable classic.

But this was not all. In 1842 the American Oriental Society had been founded in Boston by John Pickering. On the death of its eminent founder its centre of gravity naturally shifted to the home of Salisbury, of Woolsey, and of Hadley at New Haven. Whitney was elected a member in May, 1850, less than eight years after the first meeting, and his name occurs in the Society's Journal for the first time in the roll of members at the end of the second volume. For eighteen years (1855–'73) he took the care of its library, and for twenty-seven years he served as its corresponding secretary—namely, from 1857 to 1884, when he was chosen its president—so that his record shows an aggregate of fifty-one years of official service. His first contribution is a Vedic article in the third volume. Of the ten volumes, iii.–xii., of its Journal proper, much more than one-third of the contents is from his hand; or, if we count only the seven volumes, vi.–xii., more than one-half; all this apart from his multifarious papers in its Proceedings. One of his Harvard friends once said: "It always seemed to me pathetic and [for us] discreditable, when Prof. Whitney came to Boston year after year, like a judge, to 'hold' the Oriental Society, and went home again after he had read what he brought in his own pocket, . . . [and had] said about everything that was worth saying." He lived to see all that changed, and to hear an account of the Society's recent New York meeting, at which sixty-five members were present and forty-odd papers were offered. He was the first president of the American Philological Association, formed in 1869, and one of the most frequent contributors to its Transactions and Proceedings.

To him, too, belongs the distinguished honor of being one of the four "faithful collaborators" who—next to the authors, Böhtlingk and Roth—contributed most to the great seven-volumed Sanskrit-German lexicon published (1852–'75) by the Imperial Academy of Russia. In view of the power thus fully proved and of the distinction thus fairly won, it was inevitable that he should be sought as editor-in-chief for what is—barring Murray's, whose purpose and plan are wholly different—the greatest lexicographical undertaking ever adventured by men of English speech, 'The Century Dictionary.' To settle the principles by which the staff of editorial assistants and contributors was to be guided was a work demanding great breadth of learning and largeness of view—as may indeed be inferred from the preface. And under his superintendence, accordingly, was

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executed the work, destined, no doubt, to become a potent factor in popular enlightenment.

Such achievements, of course, secured the applause of the judicious. Not to mention honorary degrees, the Asiatic Society of Bengal, the Royal Asiatic of Great Britain and Ireland, the German Oriental, the Philological of London, and other societies made Whitney an honorary member; and, still among others, the Academy of Berlin, of St. Petersburg, and of Rome (the Lincei), and the Institute of France, their member or correspondent. His most conspicuous honor of this kind was his election as Foreign Knight of the Prussian Order "pour le mérite" for Science and Arts, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Thomas Carlyle.

He was a living example of what genuine scholarship is. He had some of the most distinctive traits of the best German scholars—extreme thoroughness, minute accuracy, mastery of his material; but the trees never hindered him from seeing the wood, and for him the broader aspects of a question were never obscured by the details. Trained in the best schools of his day, he was no slavish imitator of any model, however good. And his originality showed itself not only in the plan and execution of his own works, but also in his pointing out to others—in Baconian fashion—the methods most likely to be fruitful of definitive results. The admirable qualities of his mind are seen perhaps nowhere to better advantage than in his 'Language and the study of language.' To repeat the fitting words of Georg Curtius, "this work is distinguished for its sobriety and rigorousness (*nüchterne Strenge*)." In striking contrast with the speculations of writers whose toes rarely seem to touch the ground of every-day fact and experience, Mr. Whitney's argumentations show the influence of an all-pervading common sense. And to this are added simplicity and directness, with strictness of logic and clearness of thought; sometimes also, perhaps, too great concision—but one must indeed think, to read him. Said a highly esteemed scholar recently: "I never saw him but once or twice, but I feel that he has been one of my best and greatest teachers." And what shall be said by those who came directly within his personal influence? They can tell of his encouragement of the young, his kindly helpfulness to the inexperienced, his patience with the slow, and of his endless painstaking with papers, perhaps crude and bristling with Teutonisms, of some raw or bumptious débutant just home from his triennium in Germany. And they can bear witness to his calm dignity as presiding officer, to his freedom from all self-seeking in his relations with his fellow-scholars, and to his genuine modesty of bearing, of speech, and of soul.

We have thus seen Prof. Whitney actively engaged in the three ways mentioned in these columns by the necrologist of Asa Gray, namely, in the elaboration of strictly technical works, in the preparation of educational treatises, and in the popular exposition of scientific questions. The last two methods of public service are direct and immediate, and to be gainsaid of none; yet even here the less immediate results are doubtless the ones by which he would have set most store. As for the first, some may incline to think the value of an edition of the Vedas or of a Sanskrit grammar—to say nothing of a Prātiçākhya—extremely remote; they certainly won for him neither money nor popular applause; and yet, again, such are the very works in which we cannot doubt he took the deepest satisfaction. He realized their fundamental character, knew that they were to play their part in unlocking the treasures of Indian antiquity, and knew that that antiquity has its great lessons for us moderns; further, that the history of the languages of India, as it has indeed already modified, is also yet to modify, and that profoundly, the whole teaching of classical and Germanic philology, both in method and in content, and that the history of the evolution of religions in India is destined to exert a powerful influence for good upon the development of religious thought and life among us and our children. He labored, and other men shall enter into his labors. But it is this "faith, the assurance of things hoped for," which is one of the most vital attributes of the true scholar.

Some eight or nine years ago, a most serious and alarming disorder of the heart manifested itself in Prof. Whitney. His undaunted courage in the face of death's grim messenger was fairly heroic—a fit pendant to the fearlessness of his always inexorable warfare against sham and pretence. Adhering strictly to the regimen prescribed by his medical advisers, he continued to labor on, heaping, as it were, the already brimming measure of his life-work. The end came on June 7 at New Haven. His life is a noble inspiration to his fellow-students, and the example that he set will not be forgotten as long as true scholarship exists in America. But his bereaved colleagues will say, as did he upon the death of James Hadley, "My master, my master, the chariot of Israel, and the horsemen thereof!"

THE PARIS SALONS.

PARIS, May 22, 1894.

IT is unfortunate, but inevitable, that in large exhibitions only work conspicuous for rare merit, or eccentricity, or pretension has a chance to be seen and studied. Each year this fact is more strongly emphasized by the visit to the Paris Salons. No doubt in each there are canvases likely to prove delightful in a smaller collection or hanging on one's own walls, which, in so motley a gathering, are completely overshadowed. It is usually the huge machine, painted down to the standard of juries and the gaping crowd, that carries the day; or else, the lurid tragedy and strident anecdote; or, it may be, the delirious striving after individuality of technique or novelty of sensation.

The evil is more apparent at the Champs-Élysées, where the big picture prevails. This spring, its manufacturers seem to have fallen lower than ever into the abyss of puerile or outrageous commonplace. Sentiment has betrayed M. Detaille into reporting in paint a Paris fire in order that he may, not suggest a dramatic harmony in the play of flames and light, but show a row of frock-coated gentlemen taking off their top hats to the "Victims of Duty"; mysticism has misled M. Rochegrosse into a *plein-air* problem, in which the meaning of his "Chevalier aux Fleurs" is less puzzling than his ignoring of all values. Lamartine sails comfortably heavenward on the substantial wings of a Muse of M. Édouard's devising; brutal sensuality claims for its own the overblown women and drunken rakes of M. Roybet's naturalistic fancy; while the whole Salon seems typified in M. Bonnat's ingenuous conception of "The Triumph of Art," trampling, as if on the field of battle, over the prostrate foe, and riding aloft upon its Pegasus into an expanse of indigo which the advertisements of Reckitt's blue would find it hard to excel in crudeness.

It is of pictures such as these, clamoring—and not in vain—for notoriety, that necessarily one carries away the strongest impressions. And yet, even on walls so disfigured, space has been found for good work, though in no great excess. Once more M. Pointelin, in his fine poetic landscapes; delights; once more M. Français and M. Harpignies, in their conventional composition and restraint, are not without charm; once more, M. Nozal, M. Clary, and M. Gosselin show themselves sincere students of nature, observant and careful. But again this year, as last, it is to the foreigner that the Champs-Élysées owes chief distinction. Not a portrait can compare, in elegance and individuality, with Mr. Orchardson's of Sir Walter Gilbey, already seen in London; not one of the colossal designs reveals in the painter so just a sense of decorative requirements as Mr. Frank Brangwyn's "Gold, Frankincense, and Myrrh"; not one of the many followers of Bastien has borrowed from him with so much intelligence as Mr. Clausen. It is Mr. Walter MacEwen, however, who has achieved the most notable success with his picture of "Une Madeleine": in the figure of the woman kneeling at evening in a dimly lighted church, there is the scholarly drawing to which he has accustomed us in his work; but in the rich harmony made of the trailing white draperies, the deep mysterious shadows, and the soft glare of lights before a distant altar, there is the true painter's poetry and a feeling for decoration, which hitherto have not been characteristic of his canvases. He has never done anything better. Among the other American exhibitors are Mr. Bisbing, his studies of cattle in the open air refined and well-observed; Mr. Walter Gay, cigarette-makers at work, this time giving him the motive for one of his quiet, low-toned interiors; Mr. Bridgman, whose large decorative arrangement does not tell in its present surroundings; Mr. Boggs; and Mr. Mosler and Mr. Ridgway Knight, who are tending unduly toward the commonplace in sentiment. Of the men considered leaders in the old Salons, of Bouguereau and Henner, Benjamin Constant and Lefevre, perhaps the less said the better. Of late years little has been expected of them, nor have they disappointed expectations.

At the Champ-de-Mars, of course, matters are mended, but not so much as might be hoped. Here it is disappointing to find a gradual falling away from the high standard which the new Society, in its secession, at first established. With M. Carolus-Duran, who seems to be growing indifferent with time, M. Frappa, who turns out the French equivalent to the English Christmas chromo, and M. Friant, well to the fore in the society itself, it is not surprising that by degrees contributions of no importance are accepted in greater numbers. This spring, bad or indifferent canvases are in a large majority. Besides, two or three of the masters for whom one looks with special interest, are now absent. M. Carrière and M. Raffaëlli send nothing but a few lithographs and etchings which were shown some months ago in one of the Grafton Gallery's exhibitions. M. Boldini sends even less, for he is entirely unrepresented. On the other hand, one can but wish that M. Besnard had exercised a like restraint, for, in a brilliant crimson horse and an equally impossible orange lady, he has overstepped the limits of artistic reticence and dignity. Nor is M. Puvis de Chavannes much more satisfactory, though he may offend less aggressively. His decorations for the great stairway at the Hôtel de Ville please no more now that they are carried out in color than they did in the cartoon exhibited last spring.

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The blues and mauves of the scheme he has adopted are cold and unpleasant, ill calculated to redeem the commonplaceness of the composition, which I noted a twelvemonth since. It is doubly to be regretted that M. de Chavannes has failed where so often, hitherto, he has succeeded, for the Hôtel de Ville has need of many fine designs upon its walls to compensate for the one ceiling which is to be covered by M. Bonnat's "Triumph of Art." But, at least, M. de Chavannes fails from over-refinement, not from vulgar boisterousness.

I have pointed out the most prominent defects of the exhibition. Fortunately, it has many and delightful merits, as well. It has, to begin with, the portraits and marines of Mr. Whistler. Of the latter I wrote when, in the winter, they were hung at the Grafton Gallery in London. Seen a second time, they continue to impress by the knowledge they reveal, by their simplicity of rendering, by their mastery of the secret of fine color. But even more impressive is the portrait of "Comte Robert de Montesquiou-Fézensac," designed somewhat after the manner of the Sarasate, but far stronger in the expression of character, more lovely in the harmony of "Black and Silver." It is simplicity itself: the tall, slight figure stands facing you, one gloved hand resting on a cane, the opposite arm holding a gray-lined coat; but Mr. Whistler shows, as he has shown before in his Carlyle, that, for the artist, subject is nothing, treatment everything—the much-despised modern coat and trousers answering his purpose as excellently as all the treasures of Wardour Street. Mr. Alfred Stevens is another painter whose canvases are always distinguished. He also understands the folly of overloading his impressions of the sea with useless detail, and, therefore, his marines also charm by their breadth of handling and subtlety of color, while perhaps there is no modern who is so legitimately heir to the traditions of Terburg, as is proved beyond a doubt by a wonderful little interior serving as background to a lady in no less wonderful yellow satin gown falling in the rich folds Terburg loved. M. Aman-Jean is still another exhibitor who has not condescended to disappoint by undue eccentricity or desire to cater to a passing fad. His phase of Rosicrucianism, which first made him known, has not undermined his artistic sense, to which, and not to occult sympathies and influences, he owes his love of fine, stirring harmonies of color and stately decorative themes. It is in his portraits he now excels, and, of the five hung, there is not one that does not explain his desire to give not a mere painted photograph of his sitter, but a graceful and harmonious decoration. He may have a bias towards sentiment, as his rendering of M. Dampt, the sculptor, would suggest, but to it he never yet has sacrificed the more artistic qualities.

It is not only in the case of M. Aman-Jean that the decline of modern mysticism begins to be apparent. Rosicrucianism, as a fashion, has been exhausted, and its old supporters either, with him, have given it up altogether, or else have come to the end of their resources with M. Carlos Schwabe, who has rung the changes on the old passion flower and peacock feather, and resurrected Angélique and Félicien of the "Rêve" until they threaten to grow monotonous. Primitiveness, too, seems a game played out, though M. Point masquerades as Botticelli with results decidedly amusing. And the Scriptures have quite lost their fascination, though M. Béraud cannot refrain from adding a melodramatic Way of the Cross to his melodramatic Crucifixion, though M. Carolus-Duran is seeking on Calvary the sensation his portraits have long ceased to yield. Mysticism and its kindred fads may have marked the reaction from the naturalism of Bastien-Lepage and his school. But in their turn mystical excesses, apparently, are leading artists back to true sobriety of aims and simplicity of means. It is for this reason, probably, that the year's best work is found among the portraits. Mr. J. W. Alexander again scores a decided triumph in the several he contributes, even if one cannot help wishing that either he would not use such very coarse-grained canvas, or else that he would master its difficulties a little better; as it is, the paint sinks in fast and leaves too often a messed-up-looking surface, thin and dry in quality. However, while he is as graceful and elegant as ever in his portraits of women, he now shows in his M. Thaulow and M. Pranishnikoff that he can paint men of no great charm of personality every whit as successfully. If he will but see to his canvas, his future triumph will be still more complete. M. Gandara, exhibiting but one portrait, of a tall woman in white satin Empire gown, paints with too much character and grace to be overlooked. Mr. Sargent's daring, clever "Mrs. Hammersly" is here. Mr. Guthrie and Mr. Lavery make good the Glasgow School's artistic claims. And Mr. Rolshoven has taken no small step in advance in his three portraits of women, which may be lacking in refinement, perhaps, but have the strength of straightforwardness and sincerity.

For the rest, I should note the marines of Mr. Alexander Harrison and M. Lepère, the landscapes of M. Cazin (who, however, is not at his very best), M. Thaulow, and Mr. Conder, which are a pleasant relief after the dazzling emptiness of M. Montenard's canvases, the glare of M. Dauphin's, and the purple dot of M. Eliot's exaggerations. Mr. Melchers remains faithful to his old subjects, but paints them with more subtle observation and less obviousness, his figures having lost their stiffness, his color having gained in quality. I wish the same could be said of Mr. Dannat's studies of Spanish women, which, now they can no longer astonish by their eccentricity, irritate by their perverse perseverance in a foolish mannerism.

Of the sculpture in both Salons there is really little to say. The average maintained is fairly creditable, but there are few, if any, notable exceptions. The prints might with advantage be written of at greater length than my present space allows. Mr. Whistler, M. Carrière, M. Fantin-Latour, M. Dillon, and others too numerous to mention, are among the lithographers who exhibit; M. Helleu, M. Raffaëlli, and M. Lepère among the etchers; while M. Florian, Mr. Cole, and Mr. Wolf well represent the wood-engravers. For one reason or another, few illustrators contribute, and of these few the most noteworthy, M. Vierge, M. Guillaume, and Mr. Gibson, send to the Champ-de-Mars. Vigorous original drawings, however, not made for illustration, come from M. Gandara, M. Desboutins, and M. Valadon, from Mr. Studd and Mr. Cushing. N. N.

THE COUNT DE SÉGUR'S NAPOLEONIC MEMOIRS.

PARIS, May 23, 1894.

THE name of Ségur is not unknown to Americans who have studied in detail the history of the United States war of independence. Count de Ségur had a very eventful life; he was French Ambassador at the court of the great Catherine and became one of her favorites. There are many interesting details about his embassy in the second volume of Waliszewski's 'Autour d'un Trône: Catherine II. de Russie,' which has just appeared with the sub-title, "Ses collaborateurs, ses amis, ses favoris." Ségur's despatches about Catherine and her court are among the most interesting documents which relate to the history of Russia. He made the first treaty concluded between France and the great Oriental empire; he became afterwards one of the French combatants in the war of independence. At the beginning of the Revolution we find him among the confidential friends of Marie Antoinette, trying to reconcile the cause of the monarchy with the new ideas. After the catastrophe of the 10th of August and the massacres of September, he retired to the house of his brother-in-law, M. d'Aguesseau, at Fresnes, near Paris. We read in the Memoirs of his son, Gen. Count de Ségur, that a few weeks after this horrible massacre of priests, women, and inoffensive old men, he met Danton in the streets of Paris. "Danton stopped him and began to converse, when my father, speaking of the horrors of those two days, told him that he did not understand their motive, their object, or how he, Danton, minister of justice, could not prevent them or at least put a stop to them. They were walking side by side; Danton stopped, looked my father in the face, and, with his well-known cynicism, said to him: 'Sir, you forget whom you are talking to; you forget that we are *de la canaille*, that we came out of the gutter, that with your principles we should soon be in it again, and we can govern only by inspiring terror.'"

These memoirs of Gen. Count de Ségur, of which I have just spoken, appeared in eight volumes in 1873, and, strangely enough, they did not attract much attention at the time. Gen. de Ségur had been aide-de-camp to the great Napoleon, and had shared in all the campaigns of the First Empire; in 1873, just after Sedan, the fall of the Second Empire and the invasion of France, the name of Napoleon had lost its prestige. Now, by a strange phenomenon which it would take some time to analyze, there is a reaction and a Napoleonic revival. Nations as well as individuals live much in the imagination; Napoleonism is a thing of the past, it fills the popular mind with extraordinary visions of glory. Besides, we are tired of mediocrities, and, whatever may be said of Napoleon I., he cannot be called mediocre or commonplace. The publisher of the memoirs of Gen. de Ségur has seized his opportunity; only, as the present reading public does not easily absorb eight volumes at a time, he has issued a single volume of extracts from these memoirs, with this title, 'Un Aide-de-camp de Napoléon'—which, you will see, is sufficiently characteristic.

It was not necessary to give a subordinate place on the title-page to the name of Ségur; his memoirs speak sufficiently for themselves. The extracts have been well chosen. We find in them at first some pages on the Count de Ségur, the father of the General. After the Revolution, he became a councillor of state, grand master of ceremonies to Napoleon, a member of the Academy, and a peer of France. Philippe de Ségur was born in 1780; he was only thirteen years old during the dark days of the Terror. He received but an imperfect education; at the age of nineteen he enlisted in the army as simple hussar among the volunteers who bore the name of "Volunteers of Bonaparte." He was appointed sub-lieutenant

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by Bonaparte on the 9th Floréal, an VIII. He had enlisted in the republican army without taking his family's advice; when he announced his resolution to his grandfather, Marshal de Ségur, the hero of Laufeld and of Clostercamp, who had been minister of war under Louis XVI. during the American war, the old Marshal said to him: "You have renounced all the traditions of your family; but, since it is done, since you have voluntarily enlisted in the republican army, you must serve with loyalty and courage."

The Volunteers of Bonaparte were a new formation, which was placed under the orders of Gen. Dumas, an officer of the time of Louis XVI. Ségur was first sent to Switzerland, where he stayed some time, and afterwards joined the army of the Rhine, under Moreau. He gives a good description of this army, which was still imbued with the pure republican spirit:

"There were still in it some *Spartans of the Rhine*, as they were called—volunteers of the first years of the Republic, martyrs of liberty and national independence, for which they had sacrificed themselves with a devotion free from any personal ambition, even from any ambition for glory. They had a hundred times refused all advancement, and, proud of their republican rigidity, they had been seen marching half-naked, hungry, suffering the most cruel privation, and, after their victories, remaining poor among all the goods which victory bestows. War for them was not a business: soldiers, officers, generals, warriors from patriotism, they thought, after having secured the salvation of their country, only of returning to their villages as private citizens."

There were few left already of these "Spartiates" when young Ségur joined the army of the Rhine. After Hohenlinden, he rejoined Macdonald in the Valtellina as his aide-de-camp, and took part in the campaign of the Grisons. He readily espoused among his new friends the principles and ideas of the Revolution. "In the midst of this plebeian army I appreciated the double folly of a royalist, and especially of an aristocratic, obstinacy." From this moment he always tried to reconcile old and modern France, and by this fusion to hinder a return to the policy of the Convention and the Directory. He found in the new army many men who belonged to the old nobility—Caulaincourt, D'Hautpoul, Grouchy, Rochambeau, Macdonald, etc. He lived for some time in Trent with Macdonald, and then accompanied him in his embassy to Denmark. On his return he was presented to the First Consul by Macdonald, and, though he much preferred military life to diplomacy, he was intrusted with a mission to the King of Spain. He had a letter, a mysterious letter, from Napoleon to give to Godoy, the Prince of Peace, but had some difficulty in delivering it, as General Gouvion Saint-Cyr, who was then French Ambassador at Madrid, was at drawn daggers with the favorite. On his return he was appointed *officier d'ordonnance* to Napoleon and charged with the command of the detachment of the Guard which was at the Tuileries. This post brought him into personal contact with the First Consul, with his family, and with the Beauharnais; he had a part to take in the amusements, the balls, the private theatricals of the Tuileries and Malmaison.

The execution of the Duc d'Enghien was a severe shock to Ségur; he enters into many details on the subject of the attempts made against the life of Napoleon, of the conspiracies of Georges Cadoudal, of Pichegru, and others; he renders full justice to the courage of the young prince. He heard at the same moment the news of the arrival of the Duc d'Enghien at Vincennes and of his execution, from the mouth of Col. Hulin. He announced this terrible news to his father, who was then a member of the newly established Council of State. They both, after several days of great agitation, tried to prove to themselves that Napoleon had felt remorse; that he had given orders which were not properly executed, or not in time, and that the execution was the result of a misunderstanding. But Napoleon never expressed any regret for his action, even at Saint Helena. On the Sunday which followed the execution at the Tuileries—

"Bonaparte passed through the silent crowd to go to the chapel. His countenance was unchanged. During the sacrament, while the prayer was going up to Heaven, I examined him with redoubled attention. There, before God, in presence of his victim, I expected that something like regret would appear in the author of such a cruel act; but, whatever may have been his inner feeling, nothing in him changed—he remained calm, and through the tears which filled my eyes I saw his face like that of a severe and impassible judge."

Ségur describes the camp at Boulogne and the preparations for the invasion of England. The Emperor (for the First Consul had been proclaimed Emperor), after Pichegru's conspiracy, learned on the 13th of August, at his headquarters at Port-de-Briques, at four o'clock in the morning, the news which rendered the invasion of England impossible. The French admiral, Villeneuve, had taken the fleet to Ferrol and left the Channel.

"Daru was called. He enters, looks at his chief, and is surprised. His air, he told me, was terrible; his hat was over his eyes; his look was terrific. As soon as he sees Daru he rushes at him: 'Do you know where this scoundrel of a Villeneuve is? He is at Ferrol—do you understand? At Ferrol. Ah! you don't understand? He has been beaten, he has gone to Ferrol to conceal himself. He will be blockaded there. What a navy! What an admiral! What useless sacrifices!' Then, with redoubled agitation, for more than an hour, he paces the room with great strides, giving vent to his just fury in a torrent of bitter reproaches and painful words. Then, suddenly stopping and showing a table covered with papers, 'Sit there,' he says to Daru, 'and write.' And then, without a transition, without any apparent meditation, with his brief and imperious accent, he dictates to him, without hesitation, the plan of the campaign of Ulm as far as Vienna! The army of the coast, fronting the ocean for more than two hundred leagues, was at the first signal to turn round and march on the Danube, in several columns! The order of the marches, their duration, points of concentration, of reunion of the columns, surprises, attacks, various movements, the enemy's mistakes—all was foreseen. . . . The battlefields, the victories, even the dates on which we were to enter Munich and Vienna—all was then written just as it happened, and this two months in advance, at this very hour of the 13th of August, and from this quarter-general on the coast. Daru, however accustomed to the inspirations of his chief, remained dumbfounded, and he was even more surprised when afterwards he saw these oracles realized."

This extract gives not a bad idea of the graphic manner of Ségur. It is impossible to read anything more interesting than his account of the battle of Austerlitz, which was the termination of the great campaign that had carried Napoleon from Boulogne to Ulm, from Ulm to Vienna. This famous battle, fought on the 2d of December, was planned by Napoleon, in every detail, just as he had planned the strategic movements of the army. In the early morning he sent for all his aides-de-camp to come to the small house where he had spent the night. "We had a slight repast, which, like himself, we ate standing; after which, putting on his sword, 'Now, gentlemen,' said he, 'let us go and begin a great day.' We all ran to our horses. A moment afterwards we saw, on the top of the hill which the soldiers called the Emperor's hill, arriving from the various points of our line, followed each by their aides-de-camp, all the chiefs of our army corps."

The memoirs, or rather the extracts of the memoirs, which are now given to us, though they are almost exclusively military, are all written in this graphic style. Ségur takes us to Italy before Gaeta, to Jena, to Berlin, to Spain. At the end of the volume are some curious chapters on Fouché and Bernadotte. The last chapter is the history of the relations of Bonaparte with Chateaubriand and the history of the reception of Chateaubriand into the French Academy. Napoleon asked for some changes in Chateaubriand's reception speech, which had first been read, as usual, in committee. Chateaubriand would not consent to make the changes, and in consequence he was never really received officially into the Academy before the Restoration.

Correspondence.

ELEAZAR WILLIAMS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I send a few facts (as addenda to your criticism of the work of Mrs. Evans, in your issue of May 31) which have been gathered during the quarter of a century I have been working on the Roxbury (Mass.) Williams family. As is probably well known to the writer of the article referred to, Eleazar Williams furnished the late Dr. Stephen W. Williams with a brief sketch of his Williams ancestry; but even that is inaccurate, as it brings in a fabulous ancestor to account for the fact that his family name was "Williams."

As early as 1810, Eleazar Williams called himself "Count de Lorraine" and wore a large tinsel star. My grandfather was acquainted with the man and fully impressed with his ignorance and pretence. The subsequent developments of his fiction brought him to the notice of the family, and it was with this knowledge that my father, Dr. Williams of the Baldwin Locomotive Works, happened to be in Caughnawaga when those of the tribe who knew of the childhood of Eleazar were questioned regarding his origin. Dr. Williams was then locating and laying the railroad through the Indian reservation, and was not only intimately acquainted with Oronhiatekha (De Lorimier), the head chief, with Taiaike (Jean Baptiste Rice, better known as "Grand Baptiste"), the pilot of the Lachine rapids, and other subordinate chiefs, but was adopted by the tribe, and is still remembered by the older members as "Raristeseres."

In the fall of 1851 two gentlemen came to Caughnawaga to investigate the story of Eleazar Williams. It was on a Sunday afternoon that De Lorimier summoned the mother of Eleazar, Mary Ann Rice (Kanontewanteta), and an old man and woman who were with the parents at the time of his birth, as well as others who could tell of his youth. It may be well to say here that Eleazar was in bad odor with the tribe. This fact has been made much of by the upholders of the French origin, and has been stated by them as due to the lapse of the man from the Romish faith, and an attempt to avenge on him the slighted creed. The real facts are that the Romish Church, if it had any feeling in the matter, rejoiced in getting rid of a black sheep, as Eleazar had made his tribe the victims of a favorite habit of his—the collection of money for a specific purpose, and its immediate conversion to his own use.

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All the persons gathered on that Sunday afternoon knew of the character of the man, and that was all. They were then entirely ignorant of his pretensions, and spoke only Iroquois and a French *patois*. They were taken singly into the room where they were to be questioned, and a Scotchman named McNab, who was a notary and greatly trusted by the Indians, acted as interrogator and interpreter. The old woman first told how she was present at the birth of Eleazar, and that he was the son of Mary Ann (Rice) Williams, and that the birth took place at Lake George, N. Y., where the party had gone on a fishing excursion. It was immediately after the Revolution. The old man followed and said that the birth took place as stated, and he further told how Eleazar had fallen from high rocks when a boy and received injuries to his legs and knees that had left scars. The mother then told her story in corroboration of what had been told. After all the testimony had been taken, there was no one present but felt that Eleazar Williams was an Indian. Mr. McNab then translated to them the printed account of the pretended French origin of the man. It made the mother cry, and she said that she knew that Eleazar had done many bad things, but she did not think he would deny his own mother. The matter was talked over by the tribe, and they did not hesitate to call him a liar. The peculiar (?) Bourbon features of Eleazar were possessed by De Lorimier, Francis Mount—by all, in fact, who were descended from white captives.

Father Marcoux stated to my father that the early mission records were very incomplete, and, in general, those children born outside of the mission had no place on the record. This seems to cover the whole case.

EDWARD H. WILLIAMS, JR.

WENTWORTH, June 4, 1894.

DEFINITIONS OF COST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Being wholly destitute of the metaphysical gift, it strikes me as a bit too hard, especially on the metaphysicians, to find myself held up as the example of what a man may come to in economics by yielding to the metaphysical tendency. My aim in everything I have written has been to call attention to facts which others seemed to overlook; and that is my aim now. You single out my definition of cost of production as particularly metaphysical, and therefore particularly faulty. In place of it you offer one of your own. You say:

"Economically and humanly speaking, cost is what a man pays for a thing when he buys it. To the manufacturer of the finished article, the cost is what he has paid for his raw materials and the labor he has employed."

Here you seem to me to give, not one consistent definition of cost, but two inconsistent ones. The Macmillans pay two dollars for raw materials and labor in manufacturing a certain book. My bookseller buys it of them for three dollars, and I buy it of him for four dollars. You seem to say that, economically and humanly speaking, the cost of the book is either the three or the four dollars paid for it by the successive buyers. And yet you also seem to say that the cost with which economics ought to be concerned is the other, the cost to the Macmillans. If you will kindly make plain which of these views you would have us adopt, I will try to bring it to the test, not of metaphysics, but of plain fact. You will find economists very ready to learn if you have anything to suggest towards improving their treatment of cost.—Very sincerely yours,

S. M. MACVANE.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., June 9, 1894.

[We attempted no complete definition of cost; but we do say, in the name of common sense, that cost of a thing is what a man pays for it, or, in other words, its market price. We think economists ought, in the public interest, to occupy themselves solely or mainly with things which they can describe in terms of money. It is their attempts to speculate about *moral* cost, about emotions which do not affect price, and concerning which they cannot in the scientific sense *know* anything, that have brought Marx, and Bebel, and Guesde down on us.—ED. NATION.]

A MUSICAL CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to correct two statements that recently appeared in the *Nation*. In the article "The Delphian Hymn to Apollo" (No. 1506), it is stated that the rhythm of 5/8 time is equally unknown to modern verse and modern music. The rhythm of 5-4 time (practically the same as 5/8 time) is found in Liszt's Dante Symphony, Rubinstein's Tower of Babel, Tchaikovsky's last symphony, in works by Raff, Volkmann, Hiller, and Reinecke. Dr. Riemann, the great reformer of musical theory, rather favors rhythms of 5 and 7 beats.

In the review of C. Hubert H. Parry's 'The Art of Music' (No. 1507), we find, after a sweeping condemnation of Brahms's songs (which very few will endorse), "that a thorough study of the 257 songs of Franz," etc. I have all the songs of Franz, and find, on careful counting, their number to be 279.

Yours truly, C. E. R. MUELLER.

CHICAGO, June 1, 1894.

[Our remarks upon 5/8 time were somewhat contradictory, as in a paragraph succeeding the one criticised we spoke of it as "the unusual time." Saint-Saëns, in his last trio, and Chopin in one of his sonatas, employ this time. As for the number of Franz's songs, we followed Grove's Dictionary.—ED. NATION.]

THE OLDEST FOLK-LORE JOURNAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I read in your issue of May 17, p. 375, col. ii., that the *Archivio per lo studio delle tradizioni popolari*, edited by Dr. Pitrè since its inception by him in 1882, is "the oldest folk-lore journal in existence." This is a great mistake, for the first number of the French folk-lore journal *Mélusine*, started by Mr. Eug. Rolland and myself, appeared on the 5th of January, 1877.

Yours faithfully, H. GAIDOZ.

22 RUE SERVANDONI, PARIS.

[Our constant enjoyment of *Mélusine* all these years ought to have served as a check on Pitrè's statement, which we followed with the implicit faith we are accustomed to repose in that scholar's accuracy. He says of the *Archivio*, "che fu il primo fortunato tentativo nel genere, e che rimane sempre il più vecchio periodico vivente di Folklore."—ED. NATION.]

TURGENEFF'S MOTHER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Any one who wishes more complete information in English than Mr. Boyesen furnishes in the current *Century* about Ivan Turgeneff's mother can find it in the *Atlantic Monthly* for March, 1885. Mrs. Martin, the writer of the article mentioned, unfortunately was in too great haste to await the second and last instalment of the story of Mme. Turgeneff's adopted daughter, in the *European Messenger* (*Vyestnik Yevropy*); she distorted names and mistook several passages. Nevertheless, a more satisfactory view of that incarnate imp Mme. Turgeneff in action can be obtained from the *Atlantic* than from Mr. Boyesen's summary of the belated French translation.—Yours truly,

ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

NANTUCKET, MASS., June 9, 1894.

Notes.

MR. GLADSTONE'S metrical translations of the Odes of Horace are in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons, whose removal to No. 153 Fifth Avenue is now an accomplished fact.

Longmans, Green & Co. will publish, in the autumn, 'Studies on the Coast of Arran,' by George Milner.

Du Maurier's 'Trilby,' after having finished its course in the *Magazine*, will be published by the Harpers in August.

'The Claims of Christianity,' by W. S. Lilly, is to be published immediately by D. Appleton & Co.

Henry Holt & Co. promise a collection of 'Quaker Idyls,' by an author bearing a Quaker name, Mrs. S. M. H. Gardner.

'The Footprints of the Jesuits,' by R. W. Thompson, ex-Secretary of the Navy, and a 'History of the Christian Church,' in five volumes, by Henry C. Sheldon of Boston University, are soon to be issued by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

'Electrical Boats and Navigation' is the title of a work, by Thomas Commerford Martin, announced by C. C. Shelley, New York.

'Early Church History,' by J. V. Bartlet, and 'The Printed English Bible,' by Richard Lovett, are the opening volumes of the "Present Day Primers" which Fleming H. Revell Co. will publish.

Mr. John Fiske's new school History of the United States is about to be issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The following Chautauqua text-books are in preparation by Flood & Vincent, Meadville, Pa., for the next autumn and winter's reading: 'The Growth of the English Nation,' by Profs. Katharine Coman and Elizabeth Kendall of Wellesley College; 'Europe in the Nineteenth Century,' by Prof. H. P. Judson of the University of Chicago; 'Renaissance and Modern Art,' by Prof. William Goodyear of the Brooklyn Institute; 'From Chaucer to Tennyson,' by Prof. Henry A. Beers of Yale University; and 'Walks and Talks in the Geological Field,' by the late Prof. Alexander Winchell of the University of Michigan.

Mme. Octave Feuillet is about to publish, through the house of Calmann Lévy, a volume

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entitled 'Quelques Ans de Ma Vie.' *Figaro* of May 20 printed, by way of *primeur*, several letters taken from it. Others still appeared in the *Revue de Paris* a couple of months ago. These letters were written by Octave Feuillet to his wife between the years 1862 and 1868, mostly from Compiègne or Fontainebleau. They are very smooth and pretty, being perhaps a little over-polished for familiar letters. Something may be learned from them of court life in the country under the Second Empire, but it is upon Feuillet himself that the most light is thrown. It is not a very pleasing light either. There is something rather painful in the spectacle of a literary man of mark and of a certain merit making such a disclosure of his own interior and essential snobbishness as Feuillet pours forth.

To an account of the Napoleonic revival the ninth volume of Paul Ginisty's 'L'Année Littéraire' (Paris: Charpentier) gives large room, in successive reviews. The novel has, as usual, the lion's share of titles, though by no means of space. There is a brief preface by Henry Houssaye, very appropriately, since half the volume is devoted to notices of historical works.

Charles Benoist's 'La Politique' is the first volume of a series to be brought out by Léon Chailley, Paris, under the general title "La Vie Nationale." The editors are M. Benoist and M. André Liesse. The object of the series is to enable the general public, usually ill-informed on important questions, to attain a sound knowledge of the political constitution of France, of its commerce, of its methods and establishments of education, and many more similar matters. The several works will, as a rule, be divided into two parts: the first, theoretical or historical; the second, practical. It is on this principle that 'La Politique' has been written, and it forms a very valuable hand-book for any one desirous of obtaining a clear and concise exposition of the French constitution and of its workings.

M. Jules Bois was well inspired when he bethought himself of giving an account of the various minor creeds which flourish, more or less, in Paris. The result, 'Les Petites Religions de Paris' (Paris: Léon Chailley), is, however, so slight and so evidently incomplete as to cause more regret than pleasure.

The Leipzig publishers Schmidt & Günther are now issuing an extremely attractive and instructive work entitled 'Das Mittelalter: Bilder aus dem Leben und Treiben aller Stände in Europa,' by Rudolf Kleinpaul. It will be completed in twenty-five numbers, which are sold at one mark each, and about half of which have already appeared, and will contain some five hundred illustrations consisting of reproductions of old engravings and colored plates. The text is based upon the voluminous works of Paul Lacroix ("Bibliophile Jacob") supplemented by more recent researches, and will describe mediæval life and civilization in all their phases, political, social, domestic, industrial, artistic, etc. The name of Herr Kleinpaul is a sufficient guarantee that it will be written in a lively vein.

Students of Middle High German will welcome Wolfgang Goltber's new and revised edition of Karl Bartsch's anthology, 'Deutsche Liederdichter des zwölften bis vierzehnten Jahrhunderts' (Stuttgart: Goeschen). Bartsch's selections are excellent, and remain the same as in the edition of 1878; the text has been in some cases slightly modified, the notes have been corrected and considerably enlarged, the glossary improved, and the literature of the subject brought up to date. As a text-book it is now as nearly perfect as it is possible for such a work to be.

The latest issue of the "Mermaid Series," the publication of which, after being for some years suspended, has now been resumed by T. Fisher Unwin, is 'The Complete Plays of Richard Steele.' The editor, Mr. G. A. Aitkin, is well known to students of eighteenth-century literature as the author of an exceedingly detailed and accurate biography of Steele. The present volume is the more welcome from the fact that there has really never been a complete and uniform edition of Steele's plays. It is to his less-known works, moreover, that we must look in order to correct such current ideas of his character and his genius as are derived mainly from the reading of his papers in the *Tatler* and the *Spectator*—essays delicate and charming enough, no doubt, but decidedly less free and virile in tone and scope than his letters, some of his pamphlets, and his dramatic works. Steele's plays, indeed, are almost as well worth reading as those of his more famous contemporaries, Congreve and Vanbrugh. Though weak in plot, like much of the best work of the period, they have a genuine spice of wit, as well as a cleanliness of tone and purpose and a fondness for noble and charming characters not then common, and eminently characteristic of Steele. The editor's notes are largely biographical and topographical.

A rather conspicuous little book comes dancing along in the wake of the Columbian fervor, in Dr. M. Kayserling's 'Columbus, and the Participation of the Jews in the Spanish and Portuguese Discoveries,' done into English from the author's manuscript by Dr. Gross of Harvard and published by the Longmans. It has an appendix of Latin and Spanish documents, setting forth the doings of the Santangels—shown to be Jews—and disclosing the help of Jews in equipping the second expedition of Columbus. The career of the Genoan is scantily followed, and the stress of the book, as well as its distinctive merit, is in making known the manifold ways in which Jewish learning and activity were interwoven in the events which floated Columbus along to his honors and his shame.

The works of the "Austrian school" of economists have been so generally read that it is unnecessary to do more than call attention to the excellence of the edition of Von Wieser's 'Natural Value' by Mr. W. Smart, published by Macmillan. The translation was made by Mr. Christian A. Malloch under Mr. Smart's supervision, and is admirably clear, although elegance may have been in some cases sacrificed to fidelity. The most convenient feature of the work is the preface and analysis furnished by Mr. Smart, who may be said to have mastered the theory of value maintained by the Austrian school. This "natural value" he regards as substantially completing the development of the system at which Menger, Boehm-Bawerk, and Wieser have labored, as it "catches up many loose ends in previous expositions, and carries the whole theory, with its applications, to a higher level of completeness."

Mr. Andrew Lang has an apologetic rôle in his introductions to both 'Peveril of the Peak' and 'The Fortunes of Nigel' in volumes 26–30 of the International Limited Edition (Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co.). The illustrations, besides the Tower of London and a few portraits, are imaginative, of the academic sort, but are on the whole as good as those accompanying the better Waverley novels. In the cheaper Dryburgh Edition (Edinburgh: Black; New York: Macmillan), the series is continued with 'The Fair Maid of Perth,' forming volume 22.

We lately noticed the final instalment of Mr. Robert Bowes's 'Catalogue of Books Printed at or Relating to the University, Town, and County of Cambridge from 1521 to 1893, with bibliographical and biographical notes' (Macmillan). The work as now issued bound is an extremely handsome volume of more than 500 pages and 3,000 items, each with its price affixed; for though something more than the spirit of gain has prompted this laborious and elegant performance, a bookseller describes his actual stock in hand and invites dealings. Charles Astor Bristed, with his 'American Hospitality and English Repudiation' and 'Five Years in an English University,' and William Everett, with his 'On the Cam,' are the sole Americans we have recognized in this list.

A fifth edition, revised and enlarged, of 'The Records of Living Officers of the U. S. Navy and Marine Corps' (Philadelphia: L. R. Hamersly & Co.) fulfils the pious motive of the author-publisher to supply "the recording journalist" with materials for proper obituary notice of members of the naval branch of the service. Its utility has long since been proved.

Emerson's verse to Lowell on the younger bard's fortieth birthday opens the volume of the *Century* now completed and bound (new series, xxv.), and there is none that follows which can approach it. Lowell's prose aftermath is among the more excellent contents of the rest of the volume, along with memorials of Edwin Booth and a contribution to the prevailing Napoleonic recrudescence. The musical papers give excuse for some fine portraits of Berlioz, Schumann, and Grieg; those on Lincoln (of which one, by Mr. Nicolay, gives the variant readings of the Gettysburg address) are adorned with a new likeness of him also; and very pathetic is the view of Grant heroically composing his Life in his last illness. Mr. Cole supplies many admirable renderings of the Dutch masters. Finally, Mark Twain begins his "Pudd'nhead Wilson."

An article on "The Future of the West Indies and the Nicaragua Canal," by Major Otto von Wachs, in the May number of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, has also been reprinted in pamphlet form. Starting with the assumption that the Panama Canal will never be completed while the Nicaragua Canal will, the writer predicts a conflict of influence—and hardly a peaceful one—between Great Britain and the United States for the control of the new waterway and its approaches. He accordingly takes up and discusses the neighboring coasts and islands from the point of view of the strategical importance they will have, but leaves us in distressing uncertainty as to how soon we may expect the struggle to break out or what will be its probable issue.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for May opens with a brief sketch of the latest Italian explorations in eastern Africa, accompanied by a somewhat confused map showing what has been determined in regard to the courses of the main rivers of Galla and Somali-land. The expedition led by Count Ruspoli, whose objective point was Lake Rudolf, has been obliged to return to the coast; its leader, a young man of brilliant promise as a successful explorer, having been killed in an elephant hunt on December 4, 1893. There is also a rather dull and technical account of the expedition of the Imperial Russian Geographical Society, under the command of Capt. Roborovski, which is now exploring a part of eastern Turkestan not far from the district of

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Kuldja. It is not improbably one of those expeditions, half geographical, half political in their aim, which generally precede the extension of Russian territory to the south.

The latest number of the *National Geographic Magazine* is an essay by Messrs. Hayes and Campbell on the geomorphology of the Southern Appalachians—that is, on the origin of the physical features of the region. Following methods employed by McGee and Davis, the authors greatly extend the results previously acquired, both in area and in definiteness. Indeed, it is not too much to say that no essay of recent years has given so much precision to our understanding of the development of Appalachian topography. Geological students in this part of the country see so little of Tertiary deposits that they unconsciously come to regard Tertiary time as of relatively small value; and they will therefore look with surprise at the large share of altitude that is here shown to have been given to our Appalachian ridges at even a late stage of the Tertiary. The recognition of areas and axes of maximum uplift, and the effects of these movements as well as of geological structure on the shifts of river courses, are admirably brought out. The development of the course of the Tennessee River in particular is deciphered with much skill; and if the reader perhaps hesitates to accept all the details of this remarkable piece of river history, he will still find that the account of it will whet his appetite for more discussions of this kind. That so much of novelty comes from a study of the eastern part of the country, long known to geological surveyors, proves how great a harvest may be expected when modern methods of investigation are applied elsewhere.

The quarter-century of President Eliot's headship of Harvard College forms the natural leading theme of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for June, and is strikingly reviewed from different standpoints by Prof. Dunbar and the editor, Mr. Wm. R. Thayer. Two profile portraits of the President are given, one by Kruell, the other a reproduction of the class portrait of 1853, seemingly from a daguerreotype—at all events reversed, and hence impairing the comparison with what is the same aspect in the frontispiece. The new constitution of Radcliffe College is to have the effect of causing this morganatic branch of the University to be reported regularly in the *Magazine*.

When periodicals of the bulk and value of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* and the *Revue de Paris* are pouring out their abundance every fortnight, it is not too easy to keep the run of them, and quite hopeless to attempt to notice a tithe of what is noteworthy. But, however late, some mention is due to a most interesting and tenderly affectionate article on the lamented Prévost-Paradol, by his friend M. Eugène Dufeuille, which appeared in the *Revue de Paris* of March 15. This throws some new light on one of the most moving tragedies of our time. There never was a more pitiable and needless waste than Prévost's self-sought death. The memory of his incomplete life will last at any rate as long as his generation does, as this article witnesses, as well as other tributes, like the recent one of M. Gaston Deschamps in the *Temps*.

We learn from Dr. Murray, who is passing the letter D of the New English Dictionary through the press, that American readers can render a great assistance by noting early instances of *all* the terms of American politics, since this research is very difficult if undertaken in England. Examples of the use of such terms, duly authenticated by chapter and verse (author, edition, volume, page), with date, should be forwarded to "Dr. Murray, Oxford, England," no other address being necessary.

—The third volume of the writings of Jefferson, which the Messrs. Putnam are publishing, testifies to Mr. Paul Leicester Ford's editorial capacity and diligence. It embraces the 'Notes on Virginia,' of which the genesis, publication, and additions are very fully set forth, and the appendices incorporated in their proper places as notes. Jefferson's map is reproduced, there is a facsimile of his title-page, and the variant readings of the several issues of 1784, 1787, and 1853 are given, so that, as Mr. Ford justly claims, all that is germane and valuable in each has been collected here. In the letters to Madison, which in the original are mixed up with cipher, Mr. Ford has been at the pains to read and translate, as far as possible, and his success has been worth the pains. The volume opens at 1781, when Jefferson was on the point of retiring from the Governorship of Virginia, and was looking forward to a life of contemplative and scholarly retirement, with (as he avowed) every spark of political ambition thoroughly eradicated. In this mood he discusses the natural limitation of a man's duty to serve the state, and concludes against the state's right to command the service of any of its members in perpetuity—a doctrine half revived in our day in an anti-Jeffersonian quarter, viz., by Mr. C. F. Adams, in his study of the government of the city of Quincy, Mass. The death of his wife in childbed made a return to public life a diversion for Jefferson, and the volume closes with his departure from Boston on July 5, 1784, as Minister to France, carrying in manuscript his 'Notes on Virginia.' He had just studied, also, the New England States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island by journeying among them, in order to fit himself for his post; and it is to be regretted that he forebore, in his farewell to Madison, "to enter into a detail, which would be lengthy, as to the country and people I have visited." Mr. Ford prints Jefferson's two reports on the Northwest Territory, of March 1 and 22, 1784, had either of which been adopted without amendment, slavery would in terms have been abolished in all the Western territory after 1800. It was the South that killed this anti-slavery provision, by one vote. Mr. Ford shows that Jefferson, when the spark of his political ambition had become a healthy flame, remembered to forget this his highest title to statesmanship, and suffered the framers of the Ordinance of 1787 to steal his thunder without rebuke.

—All students of British history have read, in some form or other, the story of Theobald Wolfe Tone's life and death. Most of those who have collected historical libraries would desire to see his autobiography upon their shelves. The only complete edition that has appeared is scarce and is to be had but occasionally at sales. We gladly welcome Mr. Unwin's new publication (Charles Scribner's Sons), edited by Mr. Barry O'Brien. The first memoir of Tone, "the complete edition" to which we refer, appeared at Washington in 1826 in two octavo volumes. The two volumes published in London the same year consisted of excerpts from the American. The various popular editions which each subsequent wave of Irish disaffection called forth were little better than chap-books and necessarily abridgments of the original work—we refer, of course, to the London edition of 1827, the Dublin of a few years later, and the Glasgow of 1876. We are now given the whole of the memoirs and all that is of permanent value in Tone's writings, preceded by a luminous introduction of twenty-three pages from Mr. O'Brien's pen, and a sparkling preface of seven pages by Mr. Augustine Birrell. The portraits are old friends to students of Irish history, none the less valuable on that account to those who do not possess them in other volumes. The facsimile of Tone's touching last letter to his father is for the first time published. An index adds to the value of the work. The editor has done his part well. We must, however, be allowed to enter our protest against the unnecessary thickness of the paper, size of the type, and width of the lines and margins. Economy of space has to be considered nowadays on our book-shelves. These two volumes, with considerably less matter, bulk nearly twice the size of the original edition of 1826, that which we have hitherto been accustomed to use, and which is also in two volumes, but in every way pleasant to read and handle.

—Those attached to the memory of Shelley—and few in England and America would range themselves among his ill-wishers—have watched with interest the centring at Oxford of various Shelley records. University College, which thrust him from its doors for what would now be regarded as a more or less harmless and youthful effervescence of thought, has recognized his greatness by accepting and giving a place of special honor to Onslow Ford's beautiful statue of him. Bodley's librarian has recently expressed the gratitude so universally felt for Lady Shelley's gift of portraits of the poet and of books and MSS. belonging to him. Lady Shelley has within a few weeks further enriched the Bodleian by a gift of various Shelley relics. These include a portrait, painted after death, of Mary Wollstonecraft Shelley, a watch and chain, with seals attached, which belonged to her and the poet, and a case containing locks of her hair and of the poet's. The portrait in question is, of course, very valuable and a most acceptable gift; but as to the watch and seals and as to the locks of hair, many will feel that just such peculiarly intimate mementoes as personal friends and members of the immediate family most prize have little or no value in any public institution. Even if it were agreed that such things might, in exceptional cases, figure appropriately in small museums, the notion of exhibiting them in a place like the Bodleian Library at Oxford will not commend itself to many. Indeed, there will not be lacking people who may see in the acceptance of such gifts by such an institution in England a symptom of that minute and ultra-sentimental hero-worship which provokes derision and drags prosaic personal gossip into literary history. This sentimentalism has hitherto been supposed to connect itself with the German Goethe worship, and is reproached with giving undue prominence to that great man's washing bills. It is to be hoped that no further relics of so intimate a character will be added to the Oxford mementoes of Shelley.

—M. Reinach's publication of Hamdi Bey's Sidon Sarcophagi being still delayed, Prof. Percy Gardner has just given a most timely public lecture upon them at Oxford. After a sketch of the discovery of the royal tomb at Sidon and of Hamdi's ultimate extrication of the famous colored bas-reliefs now exhibited under glass in the Constantinople Museum, Prof. Gardner summarized his views upon the use of color in Greek sculpture, laying some

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stress upon the fact that the marble of these sarcophagi was stained and not simply covered with an opaque and evanescent surface-color. Early Greek sculpture, whether forming part of an architectural whole or fashioned in the round, was always colored. As rough stone gave way to more delicate marbles for sculptures in the round, a practice akin to "tinting" arose, but the colors used in architecture always required the more brilliant scale of color for reliefs shown upon temples and for sarcophagi such as these. Accepting for convenience the usual names of these four tombs, the lecturer examined them with the help of M. Reinach's heliogravure plates (by Dujardin) and determined their chronological order. The earliest is the "Lycian tomb." Its representation of a lion-hunt in chariots is Oriental, while the boar-hunt on horseback is more after the Greek fashion. Its centaurs, riders and sphinxes, as well as the whole manner of its sculpture, suggest the Parthenon reliefs. No historical clue to show whose tomb it was could be found, and the same was true of the second, the "Tomb of the mourning women." Here was an artistic triumph—eighteen mourners all expressing, but individually, one restrained mode of grief. The manner was that of the second Attic school, and the nearest analogy to be found in the nine Muses of that school or in certain Athenian sepulchral reliefs. About the third, "Tomb of the Satrap," it was at least evident that a father of some note and power and his son were involved. The style was less purely Greek than that of the other three sarcophagi, and the nearest parallel was the so-called Nereid monument of Xanthus. Last chronologically, but first in all other respects, was the tomb miscalled "Alexander's tomb." It certainly belonged to the time of Alexander; so much was evident from the style and the incidents represented. There was a very marked contrast between these compositions and those of the Mausoleum. The art here exemplified was something new under the sun, and showed great perfections of balance, composition, and proportion. One of the horsemen might well be Alexander, since there was a close resemblance to a group in the Pompeian mosaic of the battle of Issus, where Alexander appears. Hephæstion might also be plausibly identified, and the tomb could be supposed to be that of the Sidonian King set up at Alexander's command by Hephæstion.

—In an address delivered before the Société de Géographie in Paris on May 4, the African explorer Dybowski referred to Mr. Garner's recent sojourn in the jungles of the Congo for the purpose of learning the language of the gorillas from their own lips. Dybowski stated that he passed two days at the mission of Fernand Vaz, situated on the shore of the lake bearing the same name. The superior, Father Bichet, informed him that Mr. Garner had spent three months there, not in the deep forest, but at the mission itself, evidently preferring the society of the monks to that of the monkeys. Mr. Garner brought his famous cage with him and set it up at a place which he called Fort Gorillas, on the edge of the forest just twenty-eight minutes' walk from the mission and within hearing of the church-bells. Dybowski expresses a doubt whether "the apes, however strong their instincts of civilization, ever came so near the convent to perform their religious devotions." The negro boy Rozoungé, a youth about thirteen or fourteen years of age, who speaks French very well and accompanied Mr. Garner on his excursions, confirmed the statements of Father Bichet, and added that Mr. Garner had slept three nights in the cage, where he awaited in vain the visits of the chimpanzees and gorillas. The boy thinks they heard them one evening, and that is the extent of Mr. Garner's intercourse with these great anthropoid apes in their wild state. He succeeded, however, in buying a young chimpanzee, which he named Moses, but which soon died. He then expended sixteen dollars in the purchase of a young gorilla, which survived only a few days. He then left the mission, where he had paid five francs a day for board and lodging, and set out with Father Buléon of the Congregation of the Holy Ghost on a tour to the Eshiras, a tribe of the interior. After two days' travel he was taken with a severe pain in his legs, and had to be carried in a hammock to the Tomlinson factory, where he remained two months. On recovery he embarked for Europe, taking with him his cage and the elements of his dictionary of the simian tongue. Dybowski says that the phonograph which was to catch the sounds uttered by the apes, and to record them on a cylinder, never arrived, so that Mr. Garner had to carry on his investigations without the aid of this instrument. *Figaro*, which reports Dybowski's remarks, characterizes Mr. Garner as an amateur in comparative linguistics, who has succeeded in having himself taken seriously, but who proves to be "un simple fumiste."

—M. A. Gazier, Maître de Conférences of the Paris Faculty of Letters, was beyond doubt happily inspired when he undertook the work of seeking for fresh light on one of the obscurer periods in the history of education in France by going through the voluminous correspondence of Grégoire, the well-known Bishop of Blois, who was also President of the Convention. The state of education during the Revolution is a difficult subject at the best, and it has been made indefinitely harder and more tangled by overmuch disputing among the erudite. It has been discussed with passion. Optimists and pessimists have seen it all black, or all white, after their usual fashion, and they do not seem likely to come to any agreement. In this confusion of opposing documents, the patient student is fain to ask for something more, and something more impartial. This, it appears, he is likely to get from the correspondence of Grégoire. Grégoire's position made him to a considerable extent a natural confidant of several parties or groups. A confirmed, and even passionate, Republican, he never lost the sense of being also an ecclesiastic and a bishop, though his churchmanship was of a distinctly Erastian type. He refused to join with the Archbishop of Paris in the cultus of the goddess Reason. He wished to "Christianize the Revolution." This attitude of his caused him to be sought as an adviser by many of those into whose hands, up to that time, French education had been for the most part committed. Priests and curés, republicans in their politics, wrote to him from all parts of the country, and questions of education naturally mingled in their letters with questions of religion. The evidence they afford is all the more trustworthy because the letters are of the character of a casual correspondence, quite unconcerted, giving news of passing events, and showing no more "tendency" than can be easily corrected from a knowledge of the personal equation of the writers. Grégoire's correspondence embraces the whole of France, and extends from the ninth Thermidor to the signing of the Concordat. M. Gazier has extracted from it whatever bears upon questions of education, and offers the documents to his readers without note or comment, like the exhibits in a law case. They are arranged in a rigorously chronological order, but divided and under the three heads of primary, secondary, and the higher teaching. The first instalment of them appeared in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* of May 15. In a brief introduction to this, M. Gazier points out that a good deal of information about schools in France in the year 1790 may be found in the "Lettres à Grégoire sur les patois de France," published many years ago.

—We have before us the French version of a recent pamphlet issued by the League for the Intellectual Culture of the Rumanians. Besides texts of laws, protests, etc., its chief contents is the memorandum of grievances addressed to the sovereign of Austria-Hungary in 1892. Those concerned in drawing it up have just been condemned to terms of imprisonment varying from eight months to five years. There can be little doubt, however, of the truth of its statements, and of the fact that the Rumanians, Germans, and Slavs in Hungary have much to complain of. The process of Magyarization is being ruthlessly carried out, and the exasperation of the weaker nationalities is very great. At Pesth it is apparently believed to be necessary for the future welfare and tranquillity of the country that the growth of the dominant race should be favored in every way. This may be sound policy in the end, though neither generous nor just, but it bears hard on minorities attached to their own languages and historical rights, now at the tender mercy of the Magyars. One circumstance that has particularly angered the latter is the fact that the document in question was addressed to Francis Joseph, not merely as King of Hungary, but also as Emperor, thereby implying that the petitioners do not accept the present arrangement or regard themselves as only Hungarian citizens with no wishes beyond. To understand the importance of this we must remember how tremendously sensitive the Magyars are, and also that the Rumanians of Transylvania (the great majority of the population, although almost without political rights) protested against reunion to Hungary in 1868. The trial that has just taken place not only will embitter still further the race question within the kingdom, but cannot fail to excite the angriest feelings at Bucharest, where the brethren beyond the mountains are by no means forgotten, and it will put a strain on the sympathies of Rumania for the Triple Alliance.

THE NATIVES OF CENTRAL BRAZIL.

Unter den Naturvölkern Zentral-Brasiliens: Reiseschilderung und Ergebnisse der zweiten Schingú-Expedition, 1887-1888. Von Karl von den Steinen, Prof. Dr. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer. 1894. 8vo, pp. xvi, 570.

THIS important work by the well-known traveller Von den Steinen possesses unusual interest, not only from the novelty of its contents, but also because of the author's lively style, the striking psychological cogency of his observations, his power of imagination, which is always held within due limits, and the sound scientific spirit pervading the book even to the smallest detail. Three years after the two cousins Von den Steinen, accompanied by Dr. O. Clauss, had visited, in 1884, the province of Matto Grosso, and navigated the entire Xingú River from its headwaters northward to its confluence with the Amazon River,

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they, together with Dr. Paul Ehrenreich and Dr. Peter Vogel, started out afresh with the intention of exploring and surveying anthropologically and linguistically an affluent of the Xingú, the Kulisehu. This second expedition was equipped with funds furnished through the "Humboldtstiftung" of the Royal Prussian Academy of Sciences and the "Karl-Ritterstiftung" of the Berlin Gesellschaft für Erdkunde. Many delays were experienced and a host of difficulties encountered in the collecting of valuable ethnographic specimens for the Royal Museum of Ethnography at Berlin, but, nothing daunted, these fearless and well-disciplined travellers accomplished their purpose, though the expedition was prolonged into the following year. Besides eight Bakaïri settlements, they found on the grassy and timbered shores of the river seven tribes heretofore entirely unknown to the whites, even by name, but which subsequently proved to belong to four different families. Twenty-five tribes, dwelling in as many towns or settlements, were examined; on the San Lourenço River the last of them, the highly interesting hunter tribe of the Bororó, being studied with especial care. This inoffensive people is settled upon a military reservation, and their language appears to be *sui generis*.

The aborigines of the Xingú basin apply the most varied body-paints to their skins, but they never paint themselves white. They likewise prefer red or blue beads to white ones, and make no use of white clay. Chiefly for the purpose of screening their bodies from mosquitoes and flies, they mix their paints with oil, which keeps the skin moist and also serves as a garment of the kind of which they are most in need, for they go stark naked. A man will ornament himself in front with a broad black stripe from the nose down to the abdomen, with stripes on either side extending to the shoulders. Large dots may be found upon his chest and arms, wavy lines upon the thighs, and half circles of many colors upon his back. Sometimes animals or plants figure in these decorations. Those who are able to obtain cotton ribbons delight in wearing them around their legs and arms.

Linguistic researches had to be made by gestures and signs, for none of the natives were acquainted with Portuguese. The Indians' replies were, of course, indefinite, and generally gave more than was asked for. The showing of pictures of domesticated animals proved helpful. The Bakaïri called a mirror shown them "water," a pair of scissors *piranya* (=teeth); a compass was to them "the sun," a watch "the moon." A want of generic terms was perceptible in that they had, for instance, no equivalent for our *palm* and *parrot*. The pantomimic language, in which all the tribes are proficient, renders the acquisition of neighboring languages comparatively unnecessary. Gesture language affords an excellent means of satirizing peculiar habits and customs. The Suyá are made fun of for their lip-plug, or *botoco*. The Bakaïri, who use stone axes, are ridiculed by such Caribs as have advanced far enough to adopt steel axes: witness the graphic story told by one of the latter on p. 71.

Dr. Karl von den Steinen having previously published an extensive work upon the Bakaïri language (Leipzig, 1892), has refrained from enlarging upon it in his present work, except as to numerals. The art of counting is exceedingly simple, and very much resembles that of Australians, who do not go beyond two. But the Tamanaco, kinsmen of the Bakaïri, on the Orinoco, go beyond that, for they possess a numeral for five, another for twenty, and hence have adopted the quinary system. Counting by fingers suits savages better than by numerals; the right hand is the counter and "feeler" of the Bakaïri, the left hand their calculator. Prolonged inquiry has convinced the author that the number two originated in these tribes from the occurrence of organs and members (eyes, arms, wings), in *pairs*. In Tupí two is *mokoi*, "forms pairs." None of the Kulisehu tribes possess the higher numerals, for they have absolutely no use for them.

From his field-notes the author reproduces a large array of drawings, made at his request by various Indians, old and young. They were drawn either on the bark of trees or in the sand, or were pencilled on paper; they are highly amusing. Persons are all represented full-face, none in profile. For heads and beards more interest was shown than for the rest of the body, and animals were drawn with more accuracy than men, perhaps because they had to sketch them in profile. Masks of all descriptions were extensively collected by the expedition; the volume contains drawings of more than thirty, with flowing hair and all sorts of toggery covering the entire person. Masks are made either of wood, wax, or of various tissues; rhomboids and squares with geometric lines form the principal ornamentation. The numerous dances in which all these Indians gayly indulge every year involve the production of an immense number of new masks, dance clubs, head-dresses, feather ornaments, and "whirring blades." This remarkable implement is often carved in the form of a fish, and, on account of the weird and unearthly sound it produces when swung on a string, also serves in the celebration of their religious mysteries. Among the Bororó the whirring stick is used only at funerals; hence that tribe speaks of it with genuine terror, women are not permitted to look at it, and, as the old saying is, "they die at the sight of it."

The fundamental shapes of the Kulisehu pottery cups are the half-oval and the half-globe, which are all made by the women of the Maipure tribes. In general they are coarse reproductions of animal forms. Bats are more frequently represented than owls, pigeons, hawks, armadillos, martens, sloths, toads, lizards, turtles, fish, and certain fruits. The ingenuity of the Indian women is shown to better advantage in the manufacture of spinning-whirls, gourd-cups and other vessels, wax and wooden figures, shells, combs; dolls made of clay, straw, and rags, and other pretty objects. Small figures of straw or maize-husks are sent as invitations to a dance, and when a young woman of any tribe receives one of these neat little articles, representing the human figure, we may be sure she cannot refuse giving her consent to join a dance the next evening. We remark, by the way, that when, the daughter of a chief having furnished the leader of the expedition a heavy load of grain and Indian corn, he presented her with a large German doll with ruddy cheeks and long flowing blonde hair, the joy of the girl and her companions was indescribable.

The theory of medicine among these primitive people is on a level with their therapeutics. The conjurers or medicine-men are compelled to undergo a severe siege of fasts and initiation sufficient to crush all physical desires in them. One of their chief "arts" is the skilful use of poisons; hence they are greatly feared by the people, who are perfectly convinced of the fact that a conjurer kills himself with poison in order to be changed into another being. The poison is prepared from the stings of wasps, of the tocandyra ant, and of other similar insects, and mixed in a gourd with resin and vegetable oils. Human hair is also used as an ingredient to produce headache. Every disease is believed to be caused by sorcery, and the sorcerers causing them are not supposed to be in the same place with the patient, but are the medicine-men of other villages working at a distance. To become proficient in the art of shooting fish, Indians have to live an entire month solely on starch-mush. Sore eyes are treated in the most barbarous manner: the most violent inflammations are supposed to be cured by blowing tobacco smoke on them. The Indians also believe that the eyesight may be greatly improved by pulling out the eyelashes one by one.

The Brazilian Indians of the Kulisehu are great dancers. The dances, which resemble each other very much throughout the region, consist in running round in a circle, and a specially accented song accompanies each of them, the emphasis being marked by stamping of the feet. The principal dances are always performed in masks, after the bringing in of the crops, and often last all night. They take place in a special structure called the flute-house, so called on account of flutes seen hanging from the walls of the enclosure. It is a centre for all merry-makings in the villages, though for men only, as women are not allowed to enter it. Dancing is so closely identified with singing that the Bakaïri tribe use the same word for both acts (*okitavo*).

In bodily appearance the Indians do not differ much among themselves. Men and women, living constantly in the fresh, pure air of their prairies, having plenty of physical exercise, are naturally robust, stout, and healthy, though the annual heavy showers are apt to make them temporarily ill. Dr. Ehrenreich had charge of the anthropometrical department, and found an average of 161.9 centimetres for the height of 68 males measured, and 151.7 centimetres for 31 women. The Mehinakú furnished men of the most powerful stature; the Auetö all appeared to be thick-headed to a great degree. A look at the photographs will teach the general reader more than all the figures in the book combined. The men weed out their beards as effectually as possible, and also the hair on the eyelids and the pubis. They have combs, but seldom use them. Body-painting is their great delight, and a red oil made of the uruku-plant is put on the hair as well as on the body. Shaving the head is common with many tribes of South America, and was practised by them long before the tonsured European priests or monks came among them. The Coroado and Motilone derive their name from this custom, and many individuals upon the Kulisehu also indulge in it.

The women of the tribes visited are not overtaxed with work, although they carry more burdens than the men; neither are they spoiled by expressions of love and flattery, for the system of polygamy alone, if not other causes, would prevent this. Among the Bororó, conjugal relations are of a peculiar description. Family men of a settled age inhabit cabins with their families, but there is an institution called the "men's house," comprising all the unmarried men of the tribe, who separate into clubs or bands for the purpose of capturing young girls. These they bring to the "bachelors' bower," consider them common property, and live with them; but they must be careful to abduct only women who belong to their own tribe. On the Kulisehu River lawful marriages may be consummated between individuals of any tribes, for endogamy does not

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exist there. The sons of a mother belong to her tribe, not to that of the father, and the authority of the mother's eldest brother is at least equal to that of the father. The *couvade* exists in the strictest form. At birth the father severs the umbilical cord with a sharp stone. He cares for the new-born infant and fasts resolutely, depriving himself chiefly of the use of fruits, meat, and fish. While the mother has resumed her daily work, he is bound to stay with the child and to fast until the severed umbilical cord has dried and fallen off. Up to this time the father is considered identical with his child.

The multitude of new facts brought to light in the present volume is no doubt very great, but most important of all is the clear and undeniable proof that Tupi, Aruak (or Maipure) and Carib are stocks distinct in race and language. The various vocabularies now obtained of these three families render it certain that they all sprang from locally different sources. It now appears that the Carib race originated far south in Brazil, and spread northward until it reached the coast north of Orinoco River. The Tupi is supposed to have sprung up in southern Brazil also, but its spread was more along the mighty rivers of the interior and along the east coast, while the Maipure or Aruak (the Nu-Aruak of Karl von den Steinen) now extends from Bolivia all the way to the Orinoco, the coast of the Caribbean Sea, the Gulf of Mexico, and was once spoken in the West India Islands. In the drainage basin of the Xingú, nine towns of the Nahuqua and eight of the Bakaïri were found to belong to the Carib stock; to the Tupi, the Kamayurá and the Auetö'; to the Maipure belong the Mehinakú, the Waurá, the Kustenaú, the Yaulapití, and the Paressí, with one town each. The languages of the Trumaí and of the Bororó stand by themselves and have not been classified. At the end of the volume will be found eleven vocabularies with German definitions, which are intended to substantiate the linguistic divisions adopted. Another chapter deals with the superstitions observed among the white residents of Cuyabá, province of Matto Grosso.

Among the more than two hundred illustrations are thirty full-page plates, in heliotype, phototype, autotype, and lithography, besides 160 illustrations in the text made from the original photographs taken by Wilhelm von den Steinen and Dr. Ehrenreich, and from drawings by Johannes Gehrts. The map (on a scale of 1:500,000) is the work of Dr. Peter Vogel.

SEX PREDOMINANCE IN HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

The Evolution of Woman: An Inquiry into the Dogma of her Inferiority to Man. By Eliza Burt Gamble. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894. Pp. 356.

WHOEVER enjoys an admirable piece of argument, set forth in an admirably lucid and convincing manner, will take pleasure in Mrs. Gamble's book, even though he should remain in the end sceptical of some of the various interesting positions which she defends. Her main thesis, that the change from the coördinate, if not superior, power possessed by females in the animal kingdom, and in the early stages of savagery and barbarism, to the subjection of the sex which was introduced with the change from the matriarchal to the patriarchal form of descent, was a change for the worse, is well made out. It is possible that she exaggerates the feeling for justice and humanity possessed by women in the earlier ages of the world, and the consequent gain in progress that would have resulted if the egotism of the males had been held more in check. With reference to the latter point, however—the early divergence of the female from the common type in an altruistic direction—the facts of primitive sex-differentiation are certainly very significant. In addition to strictly sexual differences, the male acquires organs of sense or of locomotion of which the female is wholly destitute, or else he has them more highly developed, in order that he may find or reach her; or he has special organs of prehension for holding her securely. The female, on the other hand, has organs for the protection or nourishment of her young; and she is frequently provided, in addition, with organs for the good of the community. Thus the females of most bees have a special apparatus for collecting and carrying pollen, and their ovipositor is modified into a sting for the defence of the larvæ and of the community; and many similar cases could be given. While both species of differentiation act for the good of the race in the end, the modifications of the male do so by way of quick gratification of his selfish love of pleasure, those of the female by an unselfish devotion to the welfare of others. The mental accompaniments of these two forms of modification are necessarily extremely different, nor has this primitive difference changed its character with the progress of civilization.

In describing the status of women in the different periods of savagery and barbarism, and in early historic times, Mrs. Gamble makes use, for the most part, of facts which are well known, but she marshals them in a fresh order, and she has been able to throw much light upon many questions of social development which have long been subjects for discussion. Chief among these are the cause of the change from the matriarchal to the patriarchal form of descent, and the origin of wife-capture and of other later forms of marriage. The theories of other writers on these subjects Mrs. Gamble shows to have been largely vitiated by their having found it difficult to recognize the great power which necessarily accrued to the women of a tribe through the custom of recognizing descent only through the mother. And yet it is easy to find very graphic pictures of the state of things which that custom necessarily entails, in the writings of those who have lived among savages in very recent times. Thus, Ashur Wright, for many years missionary to the Senecas, wrote, in 1873:

"It is probable that some one clan predominated, the women taking in husbands, however, from the other clans. Usually the female portion ruled the house, . . . and woe to the luckless husband or lover who was too shiftless to do his share of the providing. No matter how many children or whatever goods he might have in the house, he might at any time be ordered to pick up his blanket and budge, . . . and, unless saved by the intercession of some aunt or grandmother, he must retreat to his own clan, or, as was often done, go and start a new matrimonial alliance in some other. The women were the great power among the clans, as everywhere else. They did not hesitate, when occasion required, 'to knock off the horns,' as it was technically called, from the head of a chief, and send him back to the ranks of the warriors. The original nomination of the chiefs also always rested with them."

But in spite of plenty of evidence of this kind to the truth of a state of things which would have been a reasonably safe deduction without evidence, most writers who have dealt with the subject of the early conditions of mankind have failed to observe the form of society which must have accompanied a system where kinship and all the rights of succession were traced through women. Women were the recognized heads of families or groups; paternity, though known, was disregarded; and men were dependent upon women, not only for their social privileges and tribal honors, but even for their homes. Whenever descent is in the female line, women constitute the head of the house; and in the management of the group, although the direction of affairs is delegated to the chiefs, female influence is supreme.

It was the first taste of the pleasure of having wives who were slaves that caused the spread of the custom of wife-capture, and *pari passu* with that custom proceeded the gradual institution of rights of private property in general. It is true that among some races which are far removed from the institution of the gens, women maintain their independence; but in all such cases (among the Tuaregs, for instance, in northern Africa, as we have lately pointed out in these columns) it is only where women freely inherit property that they are able to resist the masculine love of domination.

Prior to the decline of female influence, women taken prisoners in war were not regarded as the legitimate property of their captors. They were adopted into the gens and invested with the same status of personal independence enjoyed by the original members of the group. Military chieftains were in time allowed to retain their female captives as their special booty, and the gradual spread of this custom marked the decline of woman's power. As within their own tribe women exercised unqualified control over their own persons, the absolute ownership of one woman who was without influence was an object much to be desired, and one for which a warrior would not hesitate to brave the dangers of a hostile camp. In process of time, wars for wives became general, and with that came the downfall of woman's independence.

There are countries in which the three historic forms of marriage have all been in force at the same time. Arabia, at the time of Mohammed, when the numerous clans were in various stages of advancement from the second period of barbarism to civilization, presents a good field for observing the growth of the institution of marriage. In addition to marriage by capture and marriage by sale or contract (in which the woman did not forfeit, as in Rome, the claim to the protection of her kindred, and hence was able to maintain a high social position), there existed also a more ancient form of marriage known as the *sadîca*, which was a remnant of the matriarchal system. In this form of marriage, the man went to live with the wife in her tent, and any children that were born as the result of this union belonged to the mother, and became members of her *hayy*. Here we have proof of a well-established custom of that kind of marriage which naturally goes with female kinship so late as the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. (Among the Bedouins it is still a rare thing for a woman at marriage to leave her home and kindred.) But the other forms of marriage gradually prevailed, in which the husband bore the name of "lord" or "owner." Wherever this name for husband is found, we may be sure that marriage is of the second type, with male kinship, and the wife bound to the husband and following him to his home. For long ages after *ba'al* marriages had been established in Arabia, so degrading was the office of wife that women of rank were considered too great to

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marry. An Arab, in later times, gives this advice to his son: "Do not marry in your own *hayy*, for that leads to ugly family quarrels." It was better to have a wife who had no claims of kin, and no brethren near her to take her part.

In Sumatra, also, there formerly existed three forms of marriage, side by side, that in which the man purchased the woman, that in which the woman purchased the man, and that in which the man and woman united by mutual consent. In Japan, among the higher classes, eldest daughters retain their own name, which their husbands are obliged to assume. An eldest son of one family cannot marry an eldest daughter of another. As regards the younger children, if the husband's family provides the house, the wife takes his name; while if the bride's family furnishes the home, the bridegroom assumes the name of the wife.

We have no space to show how much light this guiding principle, that the matriarchal form of descent involved the supremacy of the female sex, throws upon countless mysterious customs that have prevailed among various savage tribes—some of which, like *la couvade* and the hostile relations of the mother-in-law and the son-in-law, have been of extraordinarily wide distribution, and also exceedingly difficult of explanation. Mrs. Gamble's book cannot fail to produce a marked effect upon opinion concerning many important questions of primitive society. It will also be found extremely interesting by the general reader.

LUMMIS'S SPANISH PIONEERS.

The Spanish Pioneers. By Charles F. Lummis. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1893. 8vo, pp. 292.

We have here a series of sketches in which the part played by Spain in the discovery, occupation, and civilization of the New World is painted in somewhat vivid colors. Much of what is said will be new to our readers, for, humiliating as the confession may be, there are, relatively speaking, but few of us who have an adequate conception of the heroism of the conquerors, the self-devotion of the missionaries, and the wisdom of the regulations of the Spanish authorities for the protection of the Indian and his elevation in the scale of humanity. The truth is that the makers of our text-books, and, to some extent, the authors of our histories, have been so busy covering up our delinquencies and otherwise magnifying the share we have had in the mental, moral, and material development of the continent, that they have not had the time, or, perhaps, as our author intimates, they lacked the inclination, to do justice to a rival nation. To supply this deficiency, thereby enabling "a Saxon boy to learn the truth in regard to the Spanish Pioneers," these sketches are said to have been written.

Without going into details, and confining ourselves to the record made by the Spaniards in North America alone, it will be sufficient to notice briefly a few of their acts and achievements by way of giving an idea of the amount and character of the work they performed. Thus, for example, we are told, pp. 20, 24, 77, 83, 161, etc., etc., that, in the century preceding the settlements of the English at Jamestown and Plymouth Rock, they had taken possession of a good portion of the continent, and founded a number of towns and cities, among which St. Augustine and Santa Fé are within the limits of what is now the United States. Naturally enough, the conquest of all this region was attended with more or less bloodshed; but when once the question of supremacy was settled, the men of "sword and cape," as Bandelier styles them, gradually gave way to farmers and mechanics, and the Spanish Government entered upon that course of legislation which, so far as the Indian is concerned, has resulted in elevating him to the highest position he has yet attained in the scale of progress.

To enumerate a tithe of the rules and regulations that were promulgated for his benefit, were an idle task; and we content ourselves with calling attention to the ordinance which, in 1543, endowed him with all the duties and privileges of a vassal of the crown, and to those enactments which secured to him, for all time, the possession of his lands. Measures like these were not intended for effect, as has sometimes been the case with us, but they were meant to be enforced; and woe to the Spanish official who had failed to carry them out when he was called to answer before the dreaded "Residencia." Indeed, it is owing to laws made by Spain some hundreds of years ago that the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico and Arizona (p. 149) have never been disturbed, and are to-day in the full enjoyment of their homes, when almost all the other tribes within our domain, especially those that "never came fully under Spanish dominion, have been, time after time, ousted from lands our Government had solemnly given to them."

Creditable as is this showing, it is but a part of the picture, for, if we shift the canvas, we shall find that in everything that related to the moral and intellectual welfare of the natives the Spanish authorities were equally solicitous. To this end, churches were established wherever they effected a settlement, or, rather, wherever there was room for a mission, and by 1617, three years before the landing of the Pilgrims, there were eleven of them in existence in New Mexico, and, if we may credit Shea ('Catholic Missions,' p. 80), they could already count their converts by the thousand. An Indian school was started in Mexico in 1524, and as "thereafter every church and convent had one attached," it will not surprise us to learn that there were Indians among the Pueblos who could read and write, and had acquired a fair amount of mechanical training before the English colonists had reached our shores. Nor was this all that was done in the cause of education, for, taking the whole of Spanish America—north and south—into consideration, we are told (p. 24) that "three universities were nearly rounding out a century" of life when Harvard college was founded. To supply the demand for works of a suitable character, a printing-press was brought to Mexico in A. D. 1536; and in 1575, some ninety years before Eliot's Indian Bible made its appearance, a number of books in twelve different Indian languages had been published.

But it is unnecessary to pursue this subject further. Facts like these speak volumes for the "Indian system" of our neighbors; and though there have been times when the execution of their laws was far from satisfactory, yet, on the whole, the Spanish method of dealing with this question has been justified by its results. That this is so is shown by the increase of the Indian population in the past 300 years ('Archæological Tour in Mexico,' p. 12); by the school of native writers which Mexico has produced; and if further evidence on the point be required, it will be found in the fact that Juarez, a full-blooded Indian, filled acceptably the highest office in the gift of the people of Mexico in our day and generation. To appreciate the full significance of this class of facts, we have only to imagine Sitting Bull occupying the Presidential chair in Washington, and Hole-in-the-Day writing history.

In all this portion of his work, and in the greater part of that which relates to the conquest of Peru, our author may be read with pleasure and profit; but when we are asked to approve of Pizarro's share in the execution of Atahualpa, we respectfully decline—not that we think his conduct is in need of special justification, but for the reason that our author, upon his own showing, fails to make out his case. To justify a verdict such as he asks for and upon the grounds upon which he asks for it, he must first show that there was a conspiracy of the Indians to attack the Spaniards, and that Atahualpa was a party to it. It will not do to say that such a thing (pp. 265, 267) was "probable," but he must prove it. Neither will it avail him to assert that Pizarro "believed" in the rumor of an uprising, for then it will be incumbent upon him to explain why De Soto was sent out to see whether there was any foundation for the rumor; and, secondly, having been sent out, why the trial and execution were not postponed until his return. As a matter of fact, De Soto (Stevens's translation of Herrera, vol. iv., p. 277) "found only peaceful Indians," and his evidence would have cleared the Inca chieftain of the charge of conspiracy, but he did not get back until a day or two after the judgment of the court had been carried into effect. That a large majority of the Spaniards were satisfied of Atahualpa's guilt and clamored for his execution, is no doubt true; but to assert that Pizarro could not withstand this clamor, and "had to yield to the demands of his army," is to tax our credulity entirely too far. The man who remained for seven months upon an island, off the South American coast, when deserted by all but thirteen of his followers, was not likely to yield to demands of any sort, or from any quarter, unless it suited him to do so. Bearing this in mind, and judging from the evidence thus far produced, it seems probable that Pizarro had determined upon Atahualpa's death before he despatched De Soto on that bootless errand. It was, under all the circumstances, the wisest thing for him to do, and, admitting that the conquest of all that region was an important step in the progress of the world, the act may be held to have been justifiable.

In this connection it is of interest to note that in June, 1891, 350 years after his assassination, the grave of Pizarro was opened, and his body, or what was said to be his, submitted to a critical examination. It was found to be dried up, or desiccated, as is the case with the so-called Peruvian mummies, and showed what were thought to be the marks of wounds upon the arms and in the throat, the latter of which caused his death. There was also indisputable evidence of the shameful mutilation to which the body had been subjected. Among the different measurements recorded, we find that the body was 1.673 metres in height, which is somewhat "above the medium." The skull was megacephalic, or large, with a capacity of 1.715 cubic centimetres, and had an index of 83.1, which brings it among the brachycephali, or short heads. The eyes were large, the nose rather flat, and the lower jaw decidedly prognathous. The superciliary ridges and glabella were developed to a remarkable degree, and the medio occipital fossa of Lombroso was distinctly marked. From these and other indications not necessary to mention, Mr. W. J. McGee (*American Anthropologist* for January, 1894, p. 3) concludes that this head, viewed in

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the light of recent researches in Italy and elsewhere, is "that of the typical criminal of to-day." This may prove to be the case, but until anthropologists are agreed as to the existence of any such typical form, a positive statement is premature. It is proper, however, to add that although the "conquest of Peru was bloody, and some of the leading acts, . . . as seen through the mists of years," are said to have been both treacherous and atrocious, yet Mr. McGee also tells us that "Pizarro may well be judged as the representative of a class necessary and good in its age, but not adjusted to the higher humanities of the present day"—a sentiment with which we should, no doubt, agree if we only knew what "these humanities" required, and could find some way to enforce their demands.

Having finished the examination and convinced themselves that the remains were all that was left of the greatest of Spanish conquerors, the body was again buried, and it now rests in the Cathedral of Lima—the city of the Kings—which was founded by Pizarro and where he was murdered.

Famous Composers and Their Works. Edited by J. K. Paine, Theodore Thomas, and Karl Klauser. Boston: J. B. Millet Co.

THE scope and object of this work can be best explained by comparing it with two other standard publications — Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians,' and Champlin and Apthorp's 'Cyclopædia of Music and Musicians.' Grove includes, in alphabetic order, articles on every musician of eminence, as well as on musical instruments, forms, schools, etc. Champlin and Apthorp do not give technical and general articles on sonata, symphony, etc., but instead of that they have provided, besides brief biographies, a special dictionary of works; operas, symphonies, songs, etc., being discussed under their own names, in separate articles. In 'Famous Composers' the plan has been followed of devoting separate articles only to the sixty-five composers most eminent in their art, the minor composers and performers being more briefly discussed in special long articles, the Netherland Masters, Music in Italy, France, Germany, Russia, Hungary, and England.

It is obvious from this arrangement that while 'Famous Composers' can, with the aid of its index, be used for reference, it is also intended for consecutive reading. It is far more liberally supplied with illustrations than any other work on music; and there is another special feature which all others lack, namely, an appendix containing as many as 472 pages of instrumental and vocal music, selected by Mr. Thomas from the works of the eminent composers described in the 960 pages of the text, and intended to illustrate the different schools and the evolution of the art. It need hardly be added that Mr. Thomas has made these selections with admirable taste and keen judgment.

The list of contributors includes twenty-one American, three English, three French, and two German writers, most of them well-known names in the musical world. Some surprise may be felt at seeing the name of Mr. John Fiske in the list, but Mr. Fiske's knowledge of music is as extensive as his love of it is ardent, and his article on Schubert is one of the most readable and suggestive in these volumes. The editor was lucky in securing the coöperation of the late Philip Spitta, whose articles on Bach, Handel, and Cherubini are models of miniature biography and criticism. Prof. Paine himself contributes two of the best articles, those on Beethoven and "Music in Germany," in which, at the risk of some repetition, he properly included, not only composers born in Germany, but such foreigners as belong to the German school. His mention of the admirable Beethoven biography by Mr. A. W. Thayer suggests the pertinent query: When will an American or English publisher have the courage to print in its original language this monumental work of an American scholar, which heretofore, strange to say, has existed only in a German translation, although the first volume appeared as long ago as 1866? The circumstance seems the stranger when we reflect that Thayer's work is quite equal to Spitta's 'Bach' and Jahn's 'Mozart,' of which translations have been printed, while Thayer's original copy is ignored, although Beethoven is much more popular to-day than Mozart or Bach.

The article on Beethoven (the biographic part of which is by Mr. Philip Hale) contains no fewer than eight portraits of the master. In the article on Mozart, there is a great abundance of pictures illustrating his childhood. Prof. Paine's opinions of Brahms, Liszt, and Wagner, "the Napoleon of Music" (598, 599) will interest all readers. Although he considers the symphonic poem invented by Liszt inferior to the symphonic form, he admits that it is "a welcome addition to modern music." Of Brahms he says:

> "Brahms has no living peer in the art of developing themes; here he shows wonderful ingenuity and infinite skill. In general, however, his themes do not captivate us like the heaven-born melodies of Schubert and Schumann. Strength, purity, nobility, and profundity of thought, rather than sensuous beauty, grace, lightness, naturalness, and spontaneousness, are his leading characteristics as a composer. A certain heaviness of spirit and gloom, nay, asceticism, prevail in his music."

Prof. Paine believes that Germany will continue to lead in the musical world. He has wisely followed the plan of assigning each composer to a writer especially in sympathy with his subject, evidently in the belief that occasional indiscriminate praise is preferable to unjust censure and deliberate suppression of merits. In a few instances, however, this principle has led to rather unfortunate results, as in the article on Meyerbeer, who is now almost universally considered one-third genius and two-thirds charlatan, whereas M. Pougin leads the reader to suppose that he was all genius, and his ideal, art for its own sake instead of the applause of the multitude. M. Pougin is equally unfortunate in some of his remarks on Rossini, of whose thirty-nine operas all but three have been hopelessly shelved, while M. Pougin nevertheless says that his music is "as young and fresh as when it first appeared, eighty years ago." But the height of absurdity is reached in the statement that "it is Rossini to whom we owe the richness and the splendors of the modern dramatic orchestra"! Here the editorial blue pencil would not have been out of place, and the same must be said of the conclusion of the late John S. Dwight's article on Mendelssohn, where he draws up a list of the eight greatest composers of all time—Bach, Handel, Mozart, and Beethoven for the first four; Schubert and Schumann for the next two; and for the last two the choice between Haydn, Gluck, Weber, *Cherubini*, and *Rossini*, leaving two of the four greatest of all composers—Wagner and Chopin—out in the cold! This was Mr. Dwight's parting shot at a stupid world which stubbornly refused to believe with him that music came to an end with Schumann.

Another place where the editorial blue pencil was called for is in the article on Saint-Saëns, in which the writer, without any explanation and in a misleading way, quotes a foolish youthful opinion of Wagner on Bellini, diametrically opposed to the convictions of his manhood. The special article on Wagner is unfortunately one of the least satisfactory in the whole collection. It had been assigned to Dr. Langhans of Berlin, who, however, was already suffering from his fatal illness and did not do himself justice. It was then given to Mr. Henderson, who has succeeded in the seemingly impossible task of making the romantic life of Wagner tiresome reading. The information is all at second and third hand, and, incredible as it may seem in an article of fifty-six columns, only twenty-eight lines are devoted to the Nibelung Festival at Bayreuth, and no mention at all is made of the unique Bayreuth theatre and its epoch-making innovations, which would have interested readers a thousand times more than the long disquisitions on the origin of the drama and other pedantic matter. It is gratifying, however, to see (from pp. 562, 565) that Mr. Henderson has at last discovered that there is nothing obscure in the meaning of leading motives, since they are always explained by the poem, and that harsh emotions call for harsh music.

Of the general articles the driest is that on France by M. Pougin, and the most difficult one that on music in America, by Mr. H. E. Krehbiel. In the article on music in Russia, Poland, Scandinavia, and Hungary, the opinion is advanced that, besides Wagnerism, the most pervasive influence in the music of to-day comes from those border-lands of Europe. In enumerating the famous musicians of Hungary the writer of this article made one serious omission—the name of the famous pianist Stephen Heller.

History of the Philosophy of History: Historical Philosophy in France, and French Belgium and Switzerland. By Robert Flint. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

IN 1874 Prof. Flint published in one volume a history of the philosophy of history in France and Germany, promising later a similar account of the historical philosophy of England and Italy, presumably also to be in one volume. Pressure of work in other directions prevented the fulfilment of that promise, and now the plan has been taken up afresh from the beginning. The present volume is a new edition of that part of the first which related to France, and it is to be followed by two others, completing the original purpose. The general plan of the work and the order of treatment, with some slight exceptions, remain the same in this volume, but the enlargement is very great and affects all parts of the book. The first edition devoted 330 pages to France; the present volume contains 706 slightly larger pages. The original introduction, one of the most interesting and instructive portions of the book, filled 62 pages; it has now grown to 172. Bossuet received 12 pages, and now has 19. Saint-Simon and Fourier had 16, and now have 28, with 30 pages added on other writers of the socialistic school. Comte and his disciples had 26 pages, and now have 87. A number of writers passed over in the first edition are here considered in greater or less fulness, the most important and interesting of these additions being the criticism of the historical philosophy of M. Renouvier.

The introduction is followed by a rapid

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sketch of classical, early Christian, and mediæval theories regarding history. Bodin, who died in 1596, is the earliest French thinker to be criticised in detail. It is only in the eighteenth century, however, that there comes to be a great body of historical philosophy, and among the writers of that century the author discusses at length the theories of Montesquieu, Turgot, Voltaire, Rousseau, Condillac, and Condorcet. More than one-half the volume is devoted to the nineteenth century, and its writers are grouped in schools—the socialistic school of Saint-Simon and his followers; the spiritualistic school of Cousin and Jouffroy; the democratic school of Guizot and Quinet; the positivist, and finally the critical school, whose most eminent example Prof. Flint considers to be Renouvier. A brief sketch of historical philosophy in Belgium and Switzerland is added.

There is no attempt in this book to set forth the author's own theory of the philosophy of history, except in so far as it may be indicated in his criticism of the theories of others. The work is rather in the nature of a preliminary study, a careful examination and criticism of all the chief theories which have been advanced in the past, as a basis for the formation of a new theory which shall profit by their excellences and avoid their defects.

One of the most interesting and fundamental questions considered in the introduction is the difference between the terms philosophy and science as applied to history—in other words, the question of the existence of a philosophy of history at all. The author believes such a distinction to exist, but confesses (p. 21) that the only one which seems to him admissible is so little a distinction of nature that it is of no importance which term is used; and throughout the book he makes no real distinction. See, for example, his treatment of Aristotle, Bossuet, and Comte. What he is discussing all the time is properly the science of history, whatever term he may use. The distinction which he seems inclined to make is either that between the science in itself and the science in its relation to other sciences, or that made by John Stuart Mill between the science itself and the science of its methods of investigation. But neither of these is a real distinction of kind. It is at most only the distinction between a higher and a lower kind of science. The material and the processes, the character of the evidence, and the nature of the problems are alike in both. One is just as truly science as the other, and the use of the word philosophy for the higher form of science is merely a disappearing survival.

The only distinction between philosophy and science which is based upon the historical use of the words as distinguished from their use by particular writers indicates a difference of method, and limits philosophy to those fields of knowledge where, at any given time, metaphysical and speculative methods are the only means of investigation. It is a consciousness of this distinction which has led to a gradual dropping of "philosophy" and to the substitution for it of "science" in many departments of knowledge, as it has become evident that strictly inductive methods may be employed in the field in question, and that its phenomena are the expression of ascertainable laws. This is a process of substitution which has gone on very rapidly in the last half-century, and familiar examples of the old terms, now no longer employed, like natural philosophy, mental philosophy, or political philosophy, will readily occur to any one in middle life. Some libraries, in their system of book classification, still make economics a subdivision of philosophy. That men's conceptions of history and their methods of studying it are changing in the same way is beyond question, and no better proof of it could be given than is to be found in this volume. It is not clear, indeed, why the word philosophy should not be now entirely abandoned as a name for the sort of investigation of history which Prof. Flint has in mind.

There remains, however, the question whether there are not problems of a different kind; problems which, in the very nature of the case, no amount of scientific progress can ever subject to the methods of strict inductive investigation, and yet in regard to which such a degree of knowledge, acquired by other means, will be possible as to lead to common agreement about them, although our ignorance regarding preliminary problems may have made such an agreement impossible in the past. If so, there will be seen to be in the end a distinction between philosophy and science which is one of kind and not of degree merely; and if so, the philosophy of history as distinguished from the science of history will be a most important and fruitful subject of inquiry. As much work has been done in the philosophy of this sort by the great seers of the past as in the other by the great analyzers, though it is as yet apparently less productive and less completely systematized into a single body of truth. The real work of Hegel is no more of the same sort as John Stuart Mill's—though necessarily traversing some of the same ground—than the work of Beethoven is of the same kind as a scientific treatise on harmony; and it is, for the present at least, as impossible for an exclusively scientific mind to understand a philosophy of this sort as it would be for a Zulu really to appreciate the Third Symphony. The final philosophy of history, if there is to be one as distinct from the science, will no doubt be produced by a mind of this order; but it must be admitted that, for the present, philosophizing of this sort about history can lead to no profitable results.

It is evident that Prof. Flint's mind is distinctly scientific. It is critical, analytic, logical. He has a comprehensive and firm grasp of a complicated system of ideas—clear intellectual insight—but he lacks that peculiar sympathetic and imaginative insight which characterizes the great constructive thinker. Even as a critic his standpoint is wholly external, the standpoint of the dissecting-table. This character of mind is not only evident in his discussion of the individual systems, but is largely responsible for the adoption of such a method as this in preparation of his own philosophy of history, and also for his own confessed inability to follow the more organic method of tracing the development of historical philosophy as a whole instead of nation by nation. The statement that the more general method would result in "an incessant and intolerable leaping from one country to another" reveals the mind which analyzes. This is, however, on the whole, a most beneficial limitation for work of this sort. There is certainly no case in the present volume where it leads to such conspicuous failure to grasp the real significance of a system as is to be found in some cases in the German portion of the earlier work. It is a peculiar fact that, while the French historians have so often yielded to the temptation to philosophize, no Frenchman has produced a philosophy of history of the higher sort. Comte's system is that which has had the greatest influence upon the world at large, and that is wholly a system of the scientific school. It is, consequently, in this volume that Prof. Flint is at his best; he has made an exceedingly valuable book for all who are interested in its subject. It is to be hoped that there will be no delay in the publication of the later volumes, and especially none in the publication of his own philosophy of history.

A History of the United States Navy from 1775 to 1893. By Edgar Stanton Maclay, A.M. Vol. I. D. Appleton & Co. 1894.

THIS work supplies the need long existing for a consecutive history of the navy from the beginning of the war of the Revolution to the close of the war of the Rebellion. Fenimore Cooper's History not only has been for a long time out of print, but has become both meagre and unsatisfactory. Mr. Maclay has had the advantage, which he has partly used, of the revival in American historical research, and he has had opportunities afforded him of personal investigation in the library of the British Museum and also in the archives of the French Ministry of Marine in Paris. Besides this he has gathered information bearing upon the war of 1812 from private sources in Great Britain. The result is a narrative much more full and interesting than Cooper, as well as more accurate. This is especially the case in the account given of the quasi-French war, as may be supposed, and also the wars with the Barbary States.

The present volume extends from the beginning of our Revolution to the end of the cruise of the *Essex* in Valparaiso harbor in the second war with Great Britain, though a brief mention of naval operations in colonial times is given in the first chapter, which is partly devoted to the discussion of the aptitude of the American people for the sea from the earliest days. This aptitude is claimed as our inheritance from our Spanish, Portuguese, French, Dutch, and English ancestors; but it was, of course, fostered by the circumstances and location of our settled region, which bordered so closely the western waters of the North Atlantic and its navigable estuaries. It is to be hoped that it will reassert itself with an extending commerce and the settlement of our Pacific Coast territory. There is no doubt, however, that our internal development, the decline of our shipping in consequence of the war of the Rebellion and the high-tariff policy, and the introduction of steam have caused a great diminution in the number of native-born Americans following the sea. It is a notable fact that a very large proportion of men now in our navy, in our mercantile marine, and even on board of our fishing and yachting craft, are foreign-born. The New England fishing fleet is to a great extent manned from the maritime provinces of Canada, while the north-countrymen of Europe, who largely man our yachts, still generally hold allegiance to their native countries. The apprentice system is but an insignificant factor in the supply of Americans to the general naval service, and other methods are under discussion for Americanizing both our naval and mercantile marine.

The author does well in calling attention to the great services rendered by the navy during the Revolution. This service, though not brilliant, was none the less effective, and was appreciated by Washington, who depended greatly, in the early days of the war, upon the military and other supplies brought in by the State and Congressional cruisers. Much damage was done to the commerce of Great Britain by these craft and also by privateers.

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Service in the latter being more lucrative, the Congressional vessels before long suffered from want of seamen. The scarcity was increased by the policy adopted by the British Government of refusing to exchange the American seamen who became prisoners, and hence the famous Jersey prison ship, with its tenders, became overcrowded with unfortunate seamen. The cruises of Biddle, Wickes, Conyngham, and Paul Jones were among those especially effective in commerce-destroying. No vital result, however, ensued from this kind of warfare; British commerce was not annihilated, the author to the contrary notwithstanding, and the command of the sea along our coasts, insisted upon by Washington as an indispensable necessity, was secured only when the superior fleets of the French gave us the sea power that led to the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown. The remarkable sea-fight between the *Bon Homme Richard* and the *Serapis* is well described by the author in graphic but moderate language. It was not only the great sea action of the Revolution, but one of the most brilliant in modern history. Alike creditable in the courage and endurance shown by victor and vanquished, it was extraordinary also in the almost exact equality of the great loss incurred in killed and wounded on board the two ships.

What is known as the French war, covering the years 1798 to 1800, found us with something of a regular naval force, especially with respect to frigates, and as a result, during these hostilities, the frigate actions were well fought and successful. This war afloat forms a remarkable case of hostilities extending over a long period without any previous or formal declaration of war. In this part of the narrative we get fresh information from French sources that adds much to its interest.

More brilliant pages in American naval history soon followed in the war in the Mediterranean against the Barbary States. No more distinguished individual action has taken place in the naval service than those of Somers and Decatur; and as for the small squadron of operations, we can do no better than to quote Nelson's remarks in regard to Capt. Dale's squadron, when he said that "there is in the handling of those transatlantic ships a nucleus of trouble for the navy of Great Britain." It is a pity that the names of Somers, Decatur, and Dale should not have been revived in the nomenclature given to our modern vessels of the navy.

The war with Great Britain was declared with but seventeen vessels in the United States Navy capable of taking the sea. The story of the part that this small force bore in this war is one most gratifying to Americans. The author tells it, as far as it is contained in this volume, in a full, perhaps too full, manner. There is somewhat of a lack of perspective here, but the interest is sustained throughout. The brilliancy of the frigate and single-ship actions upon the sea has always overshadowed the powerful effect of the great naval supremacy of Great Britain as shown in the coast blockade and outside patrol. The only historian who has seemed to appreciate the effect of this blockade has been Mr. Henry Adams. The Treasury of the United States became bankrupt not only from the loss of customs duties, but also from the inability of people to pay taxes, owing to the loss of foreign markets. Jefferson writes at this time: "How can a people who cannot get fifty cents a bushel for their wheat, while they pay twelve dollars for their salt, pay five times the amount of taxes they ever paid before?"

The present volume ends, as we have said, with the cruise of the *Essex* and her capture in the bay of Valparaiso. Porter's mistake as a commerce-destroyer was his return to Valparaiso at a time when he was likely to find a strong force in pursuit. Had he continued his cruise to the East Indies and around the world, his injuries to the commerce of the enemy would have been much greater and his own safety less endangered.

Landscape Gardening in Japan. By Josiah Conder, F.R.S., B.A. And a Supplement to the same. Tokio. 1893. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE preface to this quarto volume of one hundred and sixty pages recites that "the present work is an exposition of the rules and theories of the Art of Landscape Gardening in Japan (as followed from ancient to modern times), so far as they can be gathered from a study of native authorities, added to personal observation of the best remaining examples." The book is divided into twelve chapters, treating of the history and design of Japanese gardens, and such special topics as enclosures, lakes, bridges, lanterns, and the all-important garden-stones. The work is illustrated by twelve inartistic but highly instructive full-page lithographic plates, and by about one hundred woodcuts from drawings by a skilful native draughtsman. A supplementary volume of the same size as the original book contains forty admirable collotype reproductions from beautiful photographs of Japanese scenery and gardens, with appropriate descriptive notes. The two volumes taken together present the most complete and just account of Japanese gardening which has yet appeared.

In different lands and climates mankind naturally develops differing ideas concerning pleasantness and beauty in the surroundings of dwellings. The Italians of the Renaissance, much as they may have enjoyed the beauty of natural scenery, strove after architectural beauty in the near neighborhood of their country palaces, and created those hedged, terraced, and richly adorned gardens which Mr. C. A. Platt has recently pictured so charmingly. The ideals and achievements of the Japanese in this field have apparently been just the opposite of the Italian. The Japanese have long been ardent worshippers of the beauty of wild nature. Many carefully preserved scenes of natural loveliness or grandeur are found throughout the land. Every cultivated person is supposed to be acquainted with them, and with the legends and associations which attach to them. When Japanese gentlemen have desired to make pleasure grounds about their houses, they have accordingly been led to attempt to remind themselves of these famous natural landscapes. With a childlikeness which is strange to us, they have surrounded their dwellings with miniature imitations or models of the scenery of renowned lakes, rivers, mountains, and even sea-shores. One garden suggests the river scenery at Tatsuta, while another pictures the charms of the islands of the Inland Sea. In the one stands the Hall of the Lovely Springtime, in the other the House of the Sound of the Sea. To the initiated a Japanese garden is a poem as well as a picture. Shapes of hills, hollows, lakes, islands, and chosen stones hint of scenes, legends, associations, and national memories innumerable. The "stone of worship" forms a station from which the best view is obtained. "It is a broad, flat stone upon which one stands in a posture of veneration." The lore of the stones is endless. On the slopes of the tiny mountains are seen the base stones, the path stones, and the summit stones, as well as the mist-enveloped stone and the propitious-cloud stone. By the waterside may be found "the beach of the view of the moonrise," and on the shores of the sand islands lie the sea-gull resting stones, the mandarin-duck stones, the wild-wave stones, and hosts of others of varying significance.

It is evident that the imitation of nature is by no means strictly realistic. It is imitation subject to convention and selection. The model of the native scenery is followed with exaggeration of the characteristic. On the other hand these pleasure grounds are seldom disfigured by hybrid or incongruous elements. The common tendency to make the garden a mere display of wealth by overcrowding it with collections of rare plants and costly stones is denounced by Japanese writers. Beds of flowers for cutting, collections of chrysanthemums and peonies, and groves of plums and cherries, of all of which the Japanese are very fond, are faithfully set apart from the poetic or landscape garden, which is always regarded as a retreat for secluded ease and meditation. Many of the pictures of these retreats in Mr. Conder's second volume are very lovely. Quiet and falling water, boulders and tangled shrubbery here compose delightful scenes. With much which to us must seem childish, quaint, or unintelligible, there is mingled so much real beauty that no lover of the arts and of landscape can afford to omit an inspection of these volumes.

The Englishman at Home. By Edward Porritt. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 1894.

AN unnecessarily ambitious title is here given to an excellent little book on English government and administration. Its author has had a wide journalistic experience on both sides of the Atlantic, as London editor of a provincial daily paper and as "special correspondent" in America; he knows just what the American who takes an intelligent interest in English politics ought to be told; and he tells it simply and clearly without unnecessary verbiage. A merit of the book is that it begins with chapters on "Municipal Government," "The Poor Law and its Administration," and "National Elementary Education," before describing the Central Executive and Parliament. We know of no work which gives so interesting and plain an account of vestries, boards of guardians, and school-boards. One of the most striking results of the democratic movement towards social reform that has been going on of late in England is the new life that has flowed into these modest administrative bodies; and Mr. Porritt has been able to treat them as now forming conscious parts of the greater whole which includes Parliament in a way that would have been impossible a few years ago. The book is also useful for the account it gives of the changes of the last few years, since the publication of the "English Citizen Series." Among the most significant of these are the attempts now being made by the Treasury Department at Whitehall, by the London County Council, by the London School Board, and by most of the large municipalities both to regulate sub-contracting so as to diminish the evils of sweating, and to secure the payment of standard wages to those indirectly employed by them.

We have found little to criticise except the very occasional use of a term capable of being misunderstood, as, *e. g.*, on p. 179, where the

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author speaks in the same breath of the "office" of First Lord of the Treasury and of the "office" of leader of the House—where "office" is used in two very different senses. We could have wished, also, that Mr. Porritt had explained that, "in unions where out-door relief is not granted" and where we are given to understand that the case of "old people of good character" is "peculiarly hard" (p. 49), the place of public relief is usually taken by private charity systematized by the Charity Organization committee. The whole economic theory of the C. O. S. is indeed open to criticism; but it is only fair to say that many poor-law reformers would never have advocated the abolition of out-door relief had they not expected that the deserving poor would be assisted, in what they deemed a better way, by the C. O. S. And although the C. O. S. is theoretically a private society, there is in many places, such as Whitechapel and Oxford, a degree of coöperation between the local committee and the Board of Guardians which makes organized charity a recognized part of the national system of poor relief.

Pictures in Prose. By Aubyn Trevor-Battye. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

In this volume, which deals with "nature, wild sport, and humble life," Mr. Battye has collected some papers which have appeared in *Longmans' Magazine* and the *Saturday Review*. His title is to some extent misleading, for he is easily moved to verse, and not a few of his pictures are presented in metrical form. This is to be regretted, because the reader is led to expect prose, and may properly object to the introduction of very mediocre verse without due notice. Moreover, Mr. Battye exhibits remarkable skill and the most delicate word-painting in his prose, and his aptitude in this direction increases the disappointing effect of his poetry. His keen enjoyment of nature can hardly fail to arouse sympathetic enthusiasm, his knowledge of the habits of animals is minute and varied, and he has the happy faculty of reproducing scenery with photographic vividness. But the loving study of nature is not enough to justify versification in the absence of that rhythmic power which is the essential attribute of the poet; and of the possession of this power Mr. Battye gives no indication.

The first, and perhaps the best, of his pictures shows the busy life of a trapper and lumberman in a Scandinavian forest, and tells with much pathos how a favorite daughter lost her way and was found by her frantic father killed by one of his own dead-fall traps. Then the scene shifts to England, to the strange little island of Canvey, which, though only thirty miles from London, is but little known to Londoners, and is remarkable for the curiously Dutch appearance of its houses and people. Thence we are taken to Manitoba, and enjoy a stirring account of a moose hunt, together with some sensible reflections on the Indian problem from the Canadian point of view. And, finally, we return to England to spend pleasant summer days on the upper river at Oxford, and to watch the strange ways of sand-martins, and water-rats, and many other birds and beasts. About all these things Mr. Battye writes well, for he writes with accurate knowledge and an overflowing heart; and the city-bred reader who cannot reach the fountain-head, may yet slake his thirst for natural beauty in the clear stream of his description.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, S. B. A Moral Blot. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Boyesen, Prof. H. H. Literary and Social Silhouettes. Harpers. $1.
Castlemon, Harry. Oscar in Africa. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Douglas, R. K. Society in China. London: A. D. Innes & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $4.50.
Ebers, Georg. Cleopatra: A Romance. 2 vols. Appletons. $1.50.
Fraser, Prof. A. C. Locke's Essay on the Understanding. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Gale, Norman. Cricket Songs. London: Methuen & Co.
Howells, W. D. The Mouse-Trap: A Farce. Harpers. 50 cents.
James, Henry. Theatricals: Two Comedies. Harpers. $1.75.
Johnston, W. P. My Garden Walk. New Orleans: F. F. Hansel & Co.
Maeterlinck, Maurice. Trois Petits Drames pour Marionettes. Brussels: Edmond Deman; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
McCarthy, Justin. Red Diamonds. Appletons.
Nototovitch, N. The Unknown Life of Jesus Christ. Rand, McNally & Co.
Outing. Vol. XVIII. The Outing Co.
Patterson, Capt. Howard. The Navigator's Pocket-Book. Scribners. $2.
Quental, Anthero de. Sixty-four Sonnets. London: David Nutt.
Ross, Albert. Love at Seventy. G. W. Dillingham.
Scott, Sir W. The Fair Maid of Perth. [Dryburgh Edition.] Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Smith, Prof. C. F. Thucydides. Book III. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.75.
Tillier, Claude. Belle-Plante and Cornelius. The Merriam Co. $1.25.
Trail, Florence. Under the Second Renaissance. Buffalo: C. W. Moulton. $1.
Wright, Mabel O. The Friendship of Nature. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Yriarte, Charles. Livre de Souvenirs de Maso di Bartolommeo. Paris: J. Rothschild.

By the late Prof. McLaughlin of Yale:

MARLOWE, Edward II., and Selections from Tamburlaine and the Poems. With Intro. and Notes, clo., 75c. Bds. 50c.

LITERARY CRITICISM. Selections from Sidney to Pater. With Intro. and Notes. $1.25.

Other English Readings:

COLERIDGE, Prose Selections, ed. by Prof. Beers of Yale, 40c.

DE QUINCY, Joan of Arc, The English Mail Coach, ed. by Prof. Hart of Cornell. 40c.

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